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BRITISH HISTORY NOTES



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PREFACE

A little more than a year ago, having returned to the public school teaching, I felt the necessity of giving volume upon the plan taught after the terms have been concluded as always, but the point of view caused the reprinting of the book to be in the form of a book. The necessity is greatly met with the spelling and composition books, as much as that the book are difficult to read, and that the authors in the work will be the most greatly improved.

During this time on the subject of English grammar, we have performed this book, and the progress is not only better, but the authors and pupils of the school.

THE AUTHORS

ENGLAND'S BATTLE FIELDS



BRITISH HISTORY NOTES.

THE ROMAN PERIOD.

55 B.C. - 410 A.D.

Characteristics — The introduction of the arts of peace ; the opening up of the country ; and the maintaining of law and order.

1. The Ancient Britons were the people who inhabited the country now called Britain, before the beginning of the Christian era. They were a brave and hardy race, living on flesh and milk, and dressing in the skins of animals. They were divided into many tribes, but in times of danger all united under a common leader. Their religion was called Druidism, and their priests, known as Druids, were really the rulers of the people. They worshipped one God, but such objects of nature as the sun, the moon, and the oak, shared their veneration. They offered many human sacrifices.

2. The Roman Conquest.—To punish the Britons for assisting the Gauls, and to extend the Roman empire, Julius Caesar invaded Britain in 55 B.C. The Romans, under Claudius, came again in 43 A.D., and gradually conquered the country, putting the Druids to death. The Britons struggled valiantly under Caractacus, and then under Boadicea, to defend their homes, but the arms of Rome prevailed. Caractacus was taken a prisoner to Rome.

where his noble bearing gained him a pardon. It is said that Boadicea took poison, in the year 61, to escape falling into the hands of the Romans.

3. **Roman Influence.**—The Romans opened up the country, built roads and towns, taught the Britons the arts of peace and maintained law and order. To keep back the Picts and Scots, who dwelt in the northern part of the island, they built two walls from sea to sea. They disciplined the Britons to prevent their rising in rebellion, and thus the country became dependent on the Roman arms for protection. During the Roman period Christianity was introduced by some missionaries, and in the course of time both Britons and Romans became Christians. In 410, the Roman soldiers were withdrawn to defend their provinces nearer home.

THE EARLY ENGLISH PERIOD.

449-1017.

Characteristics.—Constant strife, and the introduction of self-governing institutions.

1. **The Coming of the English.**—After the withdrawal of the Romans, the Britons asked the English, who lived around the mouth of the Elbe, to assist them in driving back the Picts and Scots. The first of them, under Hengist and Horsa, came over in 449, drove back the Picts and Scots, and then settled in the land. Company after company of them followed and took possession of the country, driving the Britons to the west and north. There were three tribes of the English,—Jutes, Angles

and Saxons,—and they founded several kingdoms. At one time there were seven, which are known as the "Heptarchy." These were constantly at war with one another until, in 827, Egbert, king of Wessex, became king of all England.

2. English Self-governing Institutions.—The English were great lovers of freedom, and brought with them to Britain the elements of our present local self-government. The township, the hundred, and the shire, each had its own "men" to manage its affairs. The national council, which met three times a year to give advice to the king, was called the Witan. On the death of the king, a new one was elected by the Witan, the son of the late king being generally chosen, although in time of danger he was sometimes passed over to choose a military leader. This was the case when Alfred was chosen.

3. Christianity.—St. Alban introduced Christianity into Britain during the Roman period, but it was driven from the land before the heathen Saxon invaders. Again it was introduced by Augustine in 597, and gradually spread its influence over the land, and most of the men of England became free-men. Missionaries also came from Ireland to the northern parts of the island, but gradually and finally the Roman branch of the church gained the ascendancy. This kept England in touch with the most cultured churches and nations of Europe.

4. The Danish Invasions.—Egbert had barely been crowned king of all England when he had to defend his kingdom against the Danes. These were fierce, heathen sea-rovers, who were closely akin to the English. Throughout the whole of the Early English Period, during which there were fifteen

kings, the Danes made incursions upon the land. Ethelred the Unready raised a law called the Danegeld to buy them off but this brought them back in greater numbers. He then had a massacre of the Danes on St. Brice's Day, 1002. The Danish king, Sweyn, whose sister was among the slain, came to take vengeance, and at last the country was conquered in 1017.

5. Alfred the Great (871-901) was the greatest of the Anglo-Saxon kings. At first he was defeated by the Danes and had to flee; but collecting his forces, he gained a great victory over them at Edington. The Danes, under their leader, Guthrum, agreed to become Christians, and settled in the eastern part of England, the district being known as the Danelagh. The country then had rest, and Alfred organized a militia, built forts, and founded our great British navy; he encouraged learning and founded Oxford University. He also framed a code of laws and had them strictly enforced.

6. Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, was the first of our great English ecclesiastical or church statesmen. He lived during the latter part of the English Period. His government was wise and just. He maintained order, protected the land against invaders, extended commerce, and encouraged learning. He was a zealous churchman, and devoted the last nine years of his life entirely to the work of the Church.

THE DANISH PERIOD.

1017-1042.

Cnut or Canute 1017-1035.

Harold

Harthacnut—half brother.

1. Cnut.—On the death of Edmund Ironside, son of Ethelred the Unready, Cnut, the Danish leader, was chosen king of all England by the Witan. Although a Dane, he tried to rule as an English king. He governed by English laws and married the widow of Ethelred. He divided England into four earldoms and appointed Englishmen to rule over them, the most noted being Godwin, Earl of Wessex. He also dismissed his Danish troops, and tried to stop the slave trade, which was then carried on between Ireland and the west of England.

THE LATER ENGLISH PERIOD.

1042-1066.

Edward the Confessor 1042-1066.

Harold—son of Godwin 1066.

Characteristics.—The introduction of Norman-French influence.

1. Edward the Confessor.—On the death of Cnut's two sons, Edward the Confessor, son of Ethelred the Unready, became king. He had lived in Normandy during the time of Danish rule, and after becoming king he displeased the English by the favor

be allowed to his Norman friends. Edward was a weak king, and spent his time in hunting and religious duties, while the government was carried on by Earl Godwin, the king's father-in-law, and by Harold. At one time Edward quarrelled with Godwin, and it is said that he then promised the crown to his cousin, William of Normandy.

2. Harold, the son of Earl Godwin, was chosen by the Witan in reward "The Confessor." He had shown his fitness for the office by his ability and bravery in Edward's reign. At one time he had been wrecked on the coast of Normandy, and having fallen into the hands of Duke William, he was compelled to swear that he would support the Duke's claim to the English crown. William now called upon Harold to keep his oath, and on his refusal, prepared for war. Just then, Hardrada, king of Norway, and Harold's brother, Tostig, invaded England, but were defeated and slain at **Stamford Bridge**, near York. Meanwhile, William had landed in the south, and Harold hastened to meet him. The bloody battle of Senlac or **Hastings** was fought in 1066, in which Harold was slain and the English were defeated. William then marched to London, where he was crowned. This is known as the **Norman Conquest**.

NORMAN PERIOD.

1066-1154.

William I. (The Conqueror)	-	1066-1087.
William II. —son	- - -	1087-1100.
Henry I. —brother	- - -	1100-1135.
Stephen —nephew	- - -	1135-1154.

Characteristics.—The introduction of Absolute Monarchy and of the Feudal System.

WILLIAM I.—1066-1087.

1. William the Conqueror claimed the crown by inheritance and by conquest. He was a general and a statesman, and ruled with great firmness. Repeated rebellions led him to deal very cruelly with the English, depriving them of their lands, and at one time wasting and burning a very large tract of land in northern England. He introduced the Feudal System and the Curfew, laid out the New Forest as a royal hunting-ground, made severe game laws, and compiled the Domesday Book. His chief adviser was Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury.

2. The Feudal System.—By the Feudal System, which William I. introduced into England, all the land belonged to the king. He gave large grants of land to his nobles; these again divided it among the gentry, and the gentry sublet it to the yeomen. In each case part of the rent was paid in money, corn or cattle, and for the remainder the holder of the land was obliged, when called to arms, to serve in war without pay. William made every

was sworn fealty to him as well as to his own feudal lord. In this way, all were dependent on and subject to the king. In order to prevent the great nobles from having too much power, his estates were scattered in various counties.

3. **The New Forest.**—The Conqueror was passionately fond of the chase, and he laid out a vast tract of land as a royal hunting-ground. This was the original of **Windsor Forest**. To protect the game he made severe game laws. The penalty for killing a deer illegally was to have the eyes put out.

4. **The Domesday Book** was a record of all the land and the population of England. It was compiled by William I. for purposes of taxation.

5. **The Curfew** was a bell which was rung each night throughout the land as a signal that all fires and lights should be put out. It is said the object of this was to protect property, but the law was harsh.

WILLIAM II.—1087-1100.

1. **William II.** was made king on the death of his father. He promised to give the people good laws but did not keep his word. Robert, his elder brother, made an effort to get the throne but failed. William was a bad king, and oppressed the people greatly after **Landfrank's** death. **Anselm**, the new Archbishop, opposed the king in his misgovernment, but in the end he had to leave England. The **Crusades** started in this reign. Robert was one of the leaders, and in order to get money for the expedition he reneged his intention of **Normandy** in 1086. William was murdered while out hunting.

2. The **Crusades** were religious military expeditions to retake **Jerusalem** and the **Holy Land** from

the Turks, so as to enable pilgrims to visit the Holy Sepulchre at will. Each soldier wore a cloth cross on his shoulder, and the color indicated the nation to which he belonged. There were ten crusades in all; of these the most important by us were the first, which Robert of Normandy joined, the third, of which Richard I. was the leading spirit; and the last, of which Edward I. was a leader. The crusades failed in their object, but they did good by—

- (1) Clearing Europe of many lawless people.
- (2) Letting the people see how other nations lived.
- (3) Opening up the East to commerce.

HENRY I.—1100-1135.

Henry I.—On the death of William II., his brother Henry seized the crown. He knew he must govern well if he would retain it. He imprisoned William's adviser, Flambard, recalled Anselm, issued a charter of liberties, and pleased the English by marrying Edith, the daughter of Malcolm of Scotland. Robert returned from the Holy Land and claimed the throne, but was defeated and taken prisoner at Tenchebrai, in 1106. He had his eyes put out and was imprisoned until his death. Henry ruled well in many ways. He administered justice, granted charters to many towns, and allowed the clergy to select their own bishops, although they were required to do homage for their lands. Henry's son, William, was drowned in 1120, so he left his crown to his daughter, Maud.

STEPHEN—1135-1154.

Stephen, a nephew of Henry I., became king

because the nobles did not wish to have a woman to rule over them. Civil war began, and David of Scotland came to Maud's assistance, but was defeated in the "Battle of the Standard," in 1138. The war went on for several years, and at last Maud was forced to leave England. During this time England was terribly oppressed by the robber barons, who, taking advantage of the war, burnt, murdered and plundered the people. At last, on the death of Stephen's eldest son, it was arranged that Henry, son of Maud, should succeed Stephen.

THE PLANTAGENET PERIOD.

1154-1399.

Henry II.— <i>Godson of Henry 1.</i>	1154-1189.
Richard I.— <i>Son</i>	1189-1199.
John.— <i>Brother</i>	1199-1216.
Henry III.— <i>Son</i>	1216-1272.
Edward I.— <i>Son</i>	1272-1307.
Edward II.— <i>Son</i>	1307-1327.
Edward III.— <i>Son</i>	1327-1377.
Richard II.— <i>Grandson</i>	1377-1399.

Characteristics.—The growth of Parliament and of Limited Monarchy ; the Feudal System in its prime.

HENRY II.—1154-1189.

I. Henry II., though *absolute*, was one of the greatest of English kings, and tried to rule his people well. He restored order, and compelled the barons to tear down the castles built in Stephen's reign. The judicial system he organized was the model of our own ; and his laws were wise and good. Trial by Jury was introduced by Henry. He wished to have the clergy tried in the regular courts instead of in the church courts, and made his friend, Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury in order to have his assistance in bringing about this change. Becket opposed this so bitterly that he had to flee from England. On his return he was murdered. During this reign the eastern part of Ireland was conquered by the English. Henry was a very powerful king, as he ruled over many French provinces, as well as over England and part of Ireland. The last years of his reign were saddened by family discord.



2. Thomas Becket. — William I. had allowed the clergy to have their own courts, but the plan had not worked well. Henry II. determined to have the clergy tried in the regular courts, and in order to bring about this reform, he made his chancellor, Thomas Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury. Becket as chancellor had served the king well, but he opposed this change. In 1163, the "Constitutions of Clarendon" were drawn up, making the required reforms. All the bishops consented. Even Becket gave in; but he soon repented and was so much opposed as ever. The king became so angry that Becket had to flee from England. After six years he returned; the quarrel recommenced at once, and in 1170 Becket was murdered by four knights.

3. The Conquest of Ireland. — For centuries the Irish chieftains had been almost constantly at war with one another. In Henry's reign one of the chieftains, the King of Leinster, came to England for help. The Earl of Pembroke, nicknamed "Strongbow," went over with an army and conquered the eastern part of Ireland. In 1171, Henry II. went over and received the homage of the Irish chiefs. This was only the beginning of the conquest of Ireland; the real conquest was in Elizabeth's reign—four centuries later.

RICHARD I.—1189-1199.

Richard I. spent only a few months of his ten years' reign in England. He was a great warrior, and was nicknamed "The Lion-Heart." The chief event of this reign was the Third Crusade, of which Richard was one of the leaders. The crusade failed,

and on his way home Richard was shipwrecked and taken prisoner. On the payment of a large ransom he was released, and he returned to England. He died of a wound received in a petty war in France.

JOHN—(1199-1216).

1. John was the worst king that ever sat on the English throne. We know nothing good of him. He married his nephew, Arthur, to secure the English crown, and on refusing to be tried before the French king for his crime, he lost his French possessions. A quarrel arose about the appointing of a new Archbishop of Canterbury, and the Pope placed England under an "Interdict" from 1208-1212. But John did not care. The Pope then called on the King of France to deliver him, and John in cowardly fear became the Pope's vassal, which displeased the English but saved his crown. John oppressed his people so much that in 1215 they rose under Archbishop Langton and compelled him to sign "Magna Charta" or the Great Charter, granting the people their rights and liberties. John was very angry and prepared to take revenge. The barons called on Louis of France to help them, but just then John died.

2. The Interdict (1208-1212).—The Archbishop of Canterbury had died, and the monks had secretly elected a successor. John compelled them to elect another. The Pope set both aside, and named Stephen Langton to be elected. John would not allow Langton to come into England, and the Pope placed the country under an "Interdict." For four years nearly all religious ceremonies were suspended; no prayers were allowed; the churches, and

the dead were buried in churches and monasteries without funeral service. As soon as Pope deposed John and called on Philip of France to deliver him. At length, however, John submitted, renewed Langton, and gave his kingdom up to the Pope, receiving in turn as a reward.

3. "Magna Charta" (1215) is the great charter of English liberties, which the barons compelled John to sign at Runnymede, securing the rights of all the people, and limiting the power of the king. Some of the chief clauses were—

(1) The king could levy no taxes without the consent of his bishops and barons (parliament).

(2) No man could be imprisoned or imprisoned of his lands except on the lawful judgment of his peers.

(3) Justice was to be administered to all.

Archbishop Langton was the leading spirit in securing this document. It was a definite statement of the rights of the people, both made no provision for enforcing them.

HENRY III.—1216-1272.

1. Henry III. was but a child of ten when his father died. The nobles called round him, and drove out Louis and his French troops. During the early years of his reign the country was governed by regents. There was a weak king and dependent nobles on his throne, each of whom was a foreigner. At last, in 1258, the barons met and drew up the famous Provisions of Oxford, demanding—

(1) That the king should have a council of his lords.

(2) That the castle granted to foreigners should be given back to Englishmen.

(3) That there should be three Parliaments a year. As the king could not march to them, each was at

last looks out. The barons, led by Simon de Montfort, took the king prisoner at Lewes in 1264. Montfort then called his famous Parliament, 1265, having nobles, clergy and commons; but the same year he was slain at Evesham. Henry then regained his throne, and reigned until his death in 1272.

2. Simon de Montfort was one of the foreign favorites of Henry III., and married the king's sister. Notwithstanding this he became the leader of the barons in their struggle for reform. In the battle of Lewes, 1264, the king was defeated and taken prisoner, and Prince Edward also surrendered himself. Montfort now ruled England, and in 1265 he summoned a Parliament. To this were called not only the bishops and barons, as of old, but two knights from each shire, and two burgesses or citizens from each borough. Shortly after, Prince Edward mustered and gathering an army, defeated and slew Simon at Evesham.

EDWARD I.—1272-1307.

1. Edward I. was absent on the last Crusade when his father died. He was a general, a statesman, and a king. He called parliaments regularly, and in 1295 he called one which, in many respects, was the same as Montfort's. In those days parliaments did not make laws but merely granted taxes. Edward's great desire was to unite the whole island under one rule. He conquered Wales and nearly conquered Scotland. Edward made good laws and established courts where justice was administered to all. During this reign the Jews were expelled from England and were not allowed to return for nearly four hundred years.

2. The Conquest of Wales. — When Edward I. called on Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, to do him homage, he refused, and Edward led an army against him. At first Llewellyn submitted, but in 1257 he and his brother David rebelled again. The former was slain, David was put to death, and Wales was conquered, 1259. A few years after, the king's son, Edward, was made Prince of Wales, a title since borne by the eldest son of the British sovereign.

3. The War of Scottish Independence. — The King of Scotland died in 1250, leaving his crown to his grand daughter, Margaret, the Maid of Norway. Shortly after, she also died, and many claimants for the throne came forward. John Balliol and Robert Bruce were the chief. The Scotch asked Edward I. to decide, but he refused until they would first promise to do him homage. Then he sat as judge and decided for Balliol, who became his vassal. But as Balliol led to appear repeatedly before Edward to answer his complaints against his government, he rebelled, and Edward destroyed him, and placed an English governor over Scotland. Flushed with success Sir William Wallace, the "Hero of Scotland," rebelled. For a time he was successful but was defeated at Falkirk by Edward. A few years later, through treachery, he fell into the hands of the English and was put to death.

But he had roused Robert Bruce, a grandson of Balliol's rival, to action, and in 1306 Bruce was crowned King of Scotland. Edward marched north against him but died on the way. Edward II. was indolent, and little by little Bruce gained control of the country. At last, to relieve Stirling Castle, Edward II. marched north with one of the greatest and

granted, never led by an English king; but he was completely defeated by Bruce in the **Battle of Bannockburn, 1314**, which secured the independence of Scotland.

EDWARD II.—1307-1327.

Edward II. was idle and fond of bad companions. His purpose to carry on the war against the Scots, which he made in his father, was forgotten. He allowed them to regain their independence, suffering a terrible defeat at their hands in the **Battle of Bannockburn, 1314**. His wife, Isabella of France, and her soldiers raised an army against him and deposed him, placing his son on the throne. He was afterwards murdered.

EDWARD III.—1327-1377.

1. **Edward III.** became king when a mere boy, and for the first three years his mother and her favorite, Mortimer, ruled. Early in his reign Edward laid claim to the French crown by right of his mother, although the claim was worthless, for by the **Salic Law**, the women could not pass through a woman's title. This gave rise to the famous "**Hundred Years' War**," which lasted, on and off, for nearly 100 years. In 1340, Edward gained a naval victory at **Sluys**, and in 1346 the French were routed at **Crécy**, which was followed by the taking of **Calais** in 1347. The **Black Prince**, Edward's eldest son, who had won great fame at **Crécy**, defeated and took the French king, John, prisoner at **Poitiers** in 1356. In 1360, the **Treaty of Bretigny** put an end to the war for a time.

Edward giving up his claim to the French crown in return for certain French provinces. The war soon broke out again, and little by little, the English lost most of their French possessions. A terrible plague, called the "Black Death," swept over England in 1348. So many people died of it that there was a great scarcity of laborers. For many years there was a struggle between landowners and laborers, and harsh laws were passed to keep the latter down. This reign is notable for the rise of English literature, the most noted writers being Wycliffe, the Reformer, and Chaucer, the Poet.

2. John Wycliffe was the forerunner of the Reformation in England. He translated the Bible into English, and boldly spoke against Roman interference with English affairs. His followers were known as Lollards, and in after years many of them were put to death as heretics. Wycliffe, however, was safe, as he enjoyed the friendship and protection of John of Gaunt, the third son of Edward III.

RICHARD II.—1377-1399.

1. Richard II. was the son of the Black Prince. As he was only a boy when he succeeded the throne, a council was appointed to rule. In 1381, the peasants of England revolted under Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, and marched to London. They asked:

(1) For the abolition of the poll-tax, which had been first levied in the reign of Edward III.

(2) That villeinage should be abolished.

(3) That the peasants should be allowed to pay their rent in money instead of giving part in labor.

The revolt was crushed and the leaders were put to death. In the end, however, the people got what

they wished. Richard ruled well for several years and made good laws, but at last he began to rule absolutely and the people turned against him. In 1398, a quarrel arose between the Duke of Norfolk and Henry, son of John of Gaunt. Richard intervened and banished both. The next year Henry returned to recover his father's estates, which Richard had seized. The king was in Ireland at the time, and on his return he was dethroned by the Parliament, and Henry was made king. Richard was soon afterwards murdered.

LANCASTRIAN PERIOD.

1299—1461.

Henry IV.—Grandson of Ed. III.	1299-1413.
Henry V.—Son	1413-1422.
Henry VI.—Son	1422-1461.

THE YORKIST PERIOD.

1461—1485.

Edward IV.—Son of Duke of York	1461-1483.
Edward V.—Son	1483.
Richard III.—Uncle	1483-1485.

Characteristics.—Growth of Parliament for a time; gradual abolition of Villeinage; destruction of Feudal System; founding of the "New Monarchy."

HENRY IV.—1399-1413.

Henry IV. received his crown from Parliament, and to secure his position he had to keep in favor with the Parliament and the clergy. The House of Commons gained the *subsidy* right to grant money to the king; to please the Church the Lollards were persecuted, William Sawtre being the first person put to death for heresy in England. Henry had much trouble with the Percies—the Earl of Northumberland and his son—and with the Scots and the Welsh; but he was successful against them all, the chief battles being at Hornliden Hill in 1402, and Shrewsbury in 1403.

HENRY V.—1413-1422.

Henry V. was a very popular king. Early in his reign he granted to the House of Commons the exemption that their petitions, now called bills, were not to be changed by the king before he assented to them to make them law. The persecution of the Lollards was continued in this reign.

The French king being inactive, Henry revived the English claim to the French throne and prepared for war. In 1416, he took Harfleur and won a great victory at Agincourt. Three years later Rouen was taken after a long siege. Just at this time the Duke of Burgundy was murdered by friends of the Dauphin, the French king's son. The Burgundians in revenge went over to Henry's side, and in 1420 the Treaty of Troyes was signed, by which Henry was appointed Regent of France and heir to the French crown, and was to marry Catherine, the daughter of the French king. Two years later Henry died.

HENRY VI.—1422-1461.

1. Henry VI. was only a year old when his father died. His uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, a selfish, quarrelsome man, ruled in England, while another uncle, the Duke of Bedford, became Regent of France. The French war continued, and the English conquered all France north of the Loire. While they were besieging Orleans in 1425, a peasant girl named Jeanne Darc, or "Joan of Arc," who claimed that she was sent by God to crown the Dauphin, placed herself at the head of the French

forces, and raised the siege. She won many victories over the English, but, being taken prisoner, she was burned as a witch in 1431. Soon after, Bedford died and the English rapidly lost ground. Burgundy went over to the side of France again. In 1445, Henry VI. married Margaret of Anjou and gave up the province of Anjou to his father-in-law. Normandy was reconquered by the French in 1449. At last the war came to an end in 1453, and Calais was the only French possession left to the English.

In 1450, there was a rebellion under Jack Cade, the people demanding :—

- (1) Free elections.
- (2) That the foreign favorites should be sent away.
- (3) That there should be a change in the king's advisers.

The rebellion was put down and Cade was killed.

The last event of the reign was the beginning of the Wars of the Roses. Henry was deposed in 1461, and was murdered ten years later.

2. The Hundred Years' War.—Edward III. claimed the crown of France and went to war to enforce his claim. The chief events in the early part of the struggle were a naval victory at Sluys, the battle of Cressy, the siege of Calais, and the battle of Poitiers. The Treaty of Bretigny, 1360, put an end to the war for a time. Soon it recommenced, and before the death of Edward the English had lost nearly all their French possessions, although the war continued into the reign of Richard II.

Henry V. revived the claim to the French throne, and after a few years' war, in which the principal event was the battle of Agincourt, the Treaty of Troyes, in 1420, brought about a temporary peace. After Henry's death the French war

was repulsed, and the English power increased. Jeanne Darc first turned the tide of success against the English, and when the year 1429 their power declined. For a long time they had what they had won, until, in 1453, when the struggle ended, Calais alone remained to England.

3. The Wars of the Roses (1455—1485).—The Duke of York had a better claim to the crown than Henry VI., so he was deposed from the second and fourth sons of Edward III., while the Lancastrians were descendants of the third son. York had been here to the throne until the birth of Prince Edward, son of Henry VI. In 1454, Henry became insane and York was made Protector, but on the king's recovery he was driven from power. He then took up arms, claiming the crown, and thus began the famous civil war, known as the Wars of the Roses—the Lancastrians wearing a red rose and the Yorkists a white rose as a badge. They lasted some thirty years, during which there were twelve battles fought. In 1460, the Duke of York was killed at Wakefield, but his son Edward continued the struggle. After the bloody battle of Towton Moor in 1461, Henry lost his throne and was succeeded by Edward IV., the first of the Yorkists. The Earl of Warwick, the "Kingmaker," was a Yorkist at first, but, becoming offended at Edward IV., he went over to the Lancastrians, and succeeded in restoring Henry VI. to the throne. In the battle of Barnet, however, in 1471, he was defeated and slain. Soon after, Henry VI. and his son, Prince Edward, were murdered, and the Lancastrians were completely overthrown for a long time. The last battle was at Bosworth Field in 1485, when Henry Tudor, the leader of the Lancastrians, defeated and

Results of the Wars of the Roses—(1) Most of the great nobles of England were killed, and the king gained almost absolute power; (2) The Feudal System was completely swept away.

EDWARD IV.—1461-1483.

1. Edward IV. carried on the war against the Lancastrians with great energy, and overcame them in several battles; but while the nobles and their followers were fighting, the middle classes were growing rich. The great majority of the golden had been slain in the Wars of the Roses; the clergy were afraid of the spread of Lollardism; and the rich commonsense thought only of themselves. All these causes combined to increase greatly the power of the king, and he ruled with an iron hand. Edward IV. was rich from the unobstructed seizure of Lancastrian nobles, from forced loans, fines, and "benevolences" or presents, and thus was able to rule without the aid of Parliament. Thus rose what is called the New Monarchy, which lasted until the revolution in 1688. An important event of this reign was the introduction of printing into England by William Caxton.

2. William Caxton, who had been on the continent for some years, returned in 1470 and set up the first printing-press in England. He printed all the English works he could secure, and placed them on sale at a reasonable price. He translated many works and printed them in English, and had a great influence on the form of our literary English. He was patronised by kings and nobles. Printing paved the way for the Reformation, as the Bible was one of the earliest books printed.

EDWARD V.—1482.

Edward V. reigned only a few weeks. His uncle, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, became Protector, and Edward and his brother, the Duke of York, were placed in the Tower. Their friends were put to death, and soon after, Edward was deposed and Richard became king. The "Boy Princes," as they were called, were afterwards murdered.

RICHARD III.—1483-1485.

Richard III. tried to rule well, but his crimes caused the people to hate him. In 1485, Henry Tudor, a descendant of John of Gaunt, and leader of the Lancastrians, landed in England and defeated and slew Richard at Bosworth Field, the last battle of the Wars of the Roses.

TUDOR PERIOD.

1485-1555.

Henry VII., immediate successor of	
Edward, third son of Richard III.	1485-1509.
Henry VIII.—Son.	1509-1547.
Edward VI.—Son.	1547-1553.
Mary I.—Half-sister.	1553-1558.
Elizabeth I.—Half-sister.	1558-1603.

Characteristics.—Development of the New Monarchy.
The Reformation in England.

HENRY VII.—1485-1509.

1. Henry VII. married Elizabeth of York and so united the claims of the Lancastrians and Yorkists. He had few great nobles as opponents, and was able to keep down their power. Those who broke the laws were punished severely, and in this way, Henry not only increased his own power, but he gave very little. Like Edward IV., he was not so perfect on his Parliament, and so ruled almost absolutely. The Yorkists put forward two pretenders to the throne, the first being Lambert Simnel, and the second Perkin Warbeck. Both were defeated; the former was treated mercifully, but Warbeck was beheaded. Henry had two sons and two daughters. Arthur was married to Catharine of Aragon, but after his death, by the special permission of the Pope, she married Henry, the younger brother. Margaret married James IV. of Scotland, and Mary married the King of France. In this reign we see the introduction of the New Learning, as

it was called; and the discoveries of Columbus, the Cabots, and Vasco di Gama, commenced a new era in the commerce of the world.

2. **The New Learning.**—The Crusades gave the people of Europe an interchange of ideas. The discovery of the shape and motion of the earth broadened men's minds. The introduction of the merchant's progress created centers to branch out upon the deep. The spirit of discovery and exploration in the New World filled men with excitement and wonder. The capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453 caused many learned Greeks to flee to Italy, where they set up schools to which scholars from all parts of Europe flocked. Greek literature very popular. Printing placed books in the hands of the common people at a reasonable price. A general desire for learning was awakened, and this revival is called the "New Birth" or the "New Learning." In England it took a religious form, and the Bible was placed in the hands of the people. The great leaders were Colet, Erasmus, and Sir Thomas More. The last mentioned may be regarded as the English representative of this New Learning. He was the first great writer of modern English prose, and his *Utopia* proposed many reforms, which have since been adopted, and some for which we are still striving.

3. **The Star Chamber**, so called from the decorations of the room in which it met, was a court established by Henry VII to try offences against the state. The judges were appointed by the crown, and in many instances gave very unjust decisions in the king's favor, making the court an instrument of tyranny. It was abolished by the Long Parliament.

4. During the days of Feudalism, the nobles had

in their service many liveried retainers, who formed a little army ready to do the bidding of their master. To lessen the power of the nobles Henry VII. abolished this system of maintenance.

HENRY VIII.—1509-1547

I. Henry VIII. was handsome, gay, and well educated, and was very popular in his younger days. He was exceedingly selfish, and in his later years became very brutal and tyrannical. Henry was ambitious, and soon spent his father's savings in his foreign wars. Scotland attacked England twice in this reign: in 1513, James IV. and the flower of his nobility were slain at Flodden, and in 1542 James V. was defeated at Solway Moss. Henry's chief advisers were Wolsey, Cromwell, More, and Cranmer. Wolsey, falling to secure the king's divorce, lost power, and died in 1530. After his fall the king's adviser for several years was Thomas Cromwell, who aided in bringing about the Reformation, and placing the king as Head of the English Church. But he, too, fell and was beheaded. In his earlier years Henry was a strict Roman Catholic, and replied to Luther in defence of the Church. For this he received the title of "Defender of the Faith," which our monarchs still bear. Even after the commencement of the Reformation he retained many Roman Catholic doctrines. Henry had six wives, two of whom he beheaded, two he divorced, one died and one survived him. He died in 1547, leaving the throne to his son Edward, then to Mary, the daughter of Catharine of Aragon, and then to Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn.

2. **Thomas Wolsey** was Henry's first adviser. He became Archbishop of York, chancellor, cardinal, and lastly, papal legate, and he hoped to become Pope. He always endeavored to strengthen the king's power, and to gain honor and wealth for himself. He resisted, as much as possible, calling Parliament. Henry at last grew tired of his wife, **Catherine of Arragon**, and wished to get a divorce. Wolsey dared not oppose the divorce fearing to lose the favor of the king; his dared not favor it for fear of Catherine's nephew, **Charles V.**, of Germany, who had promised to aid him to become Pope. In the end his double dealing was found out, and he was stripped of all his political offices. A year later he was arrested on a charge of treason, but died on his way to London (1530).

3. **Thomas Cromwell** became the king's secretary in 1534, and for two years labored hard to increase the king's power. He was a hard, stern man, and spared no one that stood in his way, and his term of office was a period of terror. The best and noblest of the land went to the block. Even Sir **Thomas More** was beheaded. The great work of his time was the breaking about of the **Reformation** in England. In 1534 he had two acts passed by Parliament, the first forbidding the payment of "tithes" to Rome, and the second "**The Act of Supremacy**," making Henry supreme Head of the Church. The clergy were forced to acknowledge Henry's supremacy, oaths to Rome were forbidden, and soon after the king got his longed for divorce. In 1536, the smaller monasteries were suppressed. Three years later the larger ones also were abolished, and the king and many nobles were enriched with the spoil. But a new court party was arising, the

religious changes were giving new energy to the people, and the revival of parliament opened up the avenue for action. At last Cromwell's enemies gained the upper hand. The match with Anne of Cleves, a Protestant princess of Germany, which he arranged, was distasteful to the king, and Cromwell was accused of treason by his enemies and was executed.

4. Thomas Cranmer gained the favor of Henry VIII. by saying that the divorce should be referred to the Universities of Europe instead of being left to the Pope. He was made Archbishop of Canterbury in 1533, and soon after granted Henry a divorce from Catharine. He was a zealous Reformer, and had the Bible translated and read in the churches. He also favored the suppression of the monasteries. He was one of the principal advisers of Edward VI., and aided in drawing up the Forty-two Articles of Religion and the Book of Common Prayer. In Mary's reign he was arrested and burned at the stake as a heretic.

5. Marriages of Henry VIII. — Henry had six wives :

The first was Catharine of Arragon, who was the mother of Mary I. She was divorced in 1527.

The second was Anne Boleyn, the mother of Elizabeth. She was beheaded.

The third was Jane Seymour, mother of Edward VI. She died at the time of Edward's birth.

The fourth, Anne of Cleves, was divorced.

The fifth, Catharine Howard, was beheaded.

The sixth, Catharine Parr, survived her first husband.

6 The Reformation — Wycliffe had strongly opposed the Pope's interference in English affairs, but the Reformation was brought about in England

by Henry's divorce. Laws were passed forbidding appeals to Rome, and the payment of "first-fruits" to the Pope, and also making Henry VIII. Supreme Head of the Church. Then the monasteries were suppressed. Henry was by no means a Protestant; he retained many of the old Roman Catholic beliefs, although a few, such as the invocation of saints and prayers for the dead, were rejected. Both Roman Catholics and Protestants were put to death for not accepting the king's beliefs.

In the reign of Edward VI. a great change took place. All laws against Lollards and Protestants were repealed; images were destroyed; mass was abolished; the Book of Common Prayer, which contained the church services in English, was prepared; and the Forty-two Articles of Religion were drawn up containing the creed of the Church of England.

In Mary's reign the Roman Catholic religion was restored, and there was a fierce persecution of Protestants.

On the accession of Elizabeth the Church was brought back to what it was in Edward's reign, with a few exceptions—the Prayerbook being changed somewhat and the Forty-two Articles being reduced to thirty-nine. The clergy had to acknowledge Elizabeth's supremacy, and all people had to attend the English Church services. Thus the Reformation was completed.

EDWARD VI.—1547-1553.

Edward VI. came to the throne at the age of ten. His uncle, the Duke of Somerset, was made Protector. An army was sent to Scotland in 1547 to force a marriage between Edward and young

Mary Queen of Scots. The Scots were defeated at Pinkie, and in August they sent Mary off to France. The chief feature of this reign was the growth of the Reformation, in which the king, Bonner, and Cranmer were zealously engaged. Mass was abolished, and services were conducted in English. Gardiner and Bonner, two Roman Catholic bishops, were placed in prison, and Latimer and Ridley took their place. These changes created much discontent, and there were several risings throughout the country. Somerset at last lost power, and was succeeded by the Duke of Northumberland. The king's health failed in 1555, and Northumberland, to fear of Mary, who was a devout Roman Catholic, persuaded Edward to leave his crown to Lady Jane Grey, the great granddaughter of Henry VII., to whom Northumberland had married his son.

MARY I.—1553-1558.

Mary I.—The effort to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne failed, and she and Northumberland were beheaded. The religious work of Edward's reign was undone. The Pope was again made Head of the English Church, and Roman Catholicism was restored. In the latter part of the reign there was a persecution of the Protestants. Cranmer, Latimer, Ridley and hundreds of lesser degrees were burned at the stake. In 1554, Mary married her cousin, Philip of Spain, a match that was much disliked by the English. Mary's reign was short. Her husband neglected her; her people disliked her; and the loss of Calais, the last English possession in France, filled her cup of sorrow. She died in 1558.

ELIZABETH.—1558-1603

1. **Elizabeth** was warmly welcomed to the throne, and never lost her popularity during her long reign of 45 years. She had difficult work to do. At the beginning of her reign there existed dissension and religious strife at home, and war and defeat abroad. Besides, **Mary Queen of Scots** claimed the English crown. Elizabeth chose wise counsellors, and soon the condition of affairs improved. The diffusion of her position made Elizabeth more dependent on parliament, and the House of Commons won back the long struggle to recover their old power, which ended only with the Revolution in 1688. The English Church was again separated from Rome, and the people were compelled to conform to the service as contained in the Prayer book and to acknowledge Elizabeth as Head of the Church. Elizabeth for many years avoided foreign wars, and was thus able to keep down taxation and make her people prosperous. This reign was a time of great maritime enterprise, and English sailors were found on all the seas. In 1557, **Mary Queen of Scots** was liberated after an imprisonment of nineteen years. The next year the "Invincible Armada," sent on by Spain to conquer England, was almost destroyed, and England then became "mistress of the seas." The last important event of the reign was the completion of the conquest of Ireland by Lord Mountjoy.

2. **The Puritans**.—The Church of England, as established by Elizabeth, was not extreme. The queen wished to take a middle position, and so had both Roman Catholics and extreme Protestants to

her way of worshipping. Many of the latter wished a purer form of worship, and so became known as Puritans. Their high ideal of life and their devotion to right were strong points in their character, and they furnish some of the noblest names that grace the page of history.

3. William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, had held office during the reigns of Henry VIII, Edward VI, and Mary. When Elizabeth came to the throne he became Secretary of State, and served her faithfully during the rest of his life. He was cautious, and, like the queen, was anxious to avoid foreign wars. He aided in bringing about many reforms, and much of the glory of Elizabeth's reign is due to the wise counsels and acts of Cecil. He died in 1598.

4. Mary Queen of Scots was the most beautiful woman of her time, in Europe. She had been brought up in France, where she had married the Dauphin, afterwards Francis II. She was soon left a widow, and returned to Scotland in 1561. Her second husband, Lord Darnley, was murdered, and Mary married the man who was regarded as the murderer. The Scots, in horror, drove her from the throne, and she fled to England in 1568. She was a dangerous rival of Elizabeth, having claimed the English crown, and so she was held a prisoner for nineteen years. Her religious friends never ceased plotting to gain her freedom and to overthrow Elizabeth. At last, in 1587, she was beheaded.

5 The Spanish Armada (1588).—Many Spanish vessels had been captured by English privateers, and thousands of English had aided the Dutch in their struggle for liberty against Philip of Spain. Eager for revenge, Philip fitted out a great fleet of 130 ships, fully manned and commanded by the

best officers of Spain, to conquer England and restore the Roman Catholic religion. To meet this fleet the English had but 80 small ships. The English admiral was Lord Howard of Effingham, and under him served Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher. A running fight was kept up along the English Channel, and at Calais French ships were sent chasing the Spanish armada. The Spaniards died to the north in alarm, and the English, following them up, prevented them from returning. A terrible storm arose from the south, and they were compelled to sail around the north of Scotland. Storms completed the destruction of the great fleet. This victory gave England confidence in herself, humbled the power of Spain, secured English independence and protected the Protestant cause.

6. **The Conquest of Ireland**—The Irish took no interest in the Reformation; they remained strict Roman Catholics. Early in Elizabeth's reign they rebelled under Shan O'Neill, but the rising was put down. The English tried to force Protestantism on them, and this produced great discontent. At last, in 1593, Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, rose in rebellion with the assistance of Spain. The Earl of Essex, who was sent to crush the rising, foolishly made a treaty with the Irish and returned home. He was stripped of his office, and Lord Mountjoy was sent over. He put down the rebellion, and from that time the whole of Ireland has been subject to English rule.

7. **The Elizabethan Poets**—Times of great national excitement always produce great writers. The religious changes, the discoveries, and the defeat of the Armada thrilled the English people, and this reign is one of the brightest periods of English literature.

ure. Shakespeare, the prince of writers, who understood human nature so well, belongs to this period. He wrote many plays which are acted and studied all over the world to-day. Edmund Spenser is one of the greatest of our poets, his chief work being 'The Faerie Queene.'

8. Progress in Elizabeth's Reign.—When Elizabeth came to the throne she found England weak and divided; at her death the country was strong and united. Under her wise rule England became very prosperous. Improved methods of farming doubled the products, and manufactures and commerce were extended. After the fall of Antwerp, in the Netherlands, London became the great market of the world. Exploring expeditions were sent out, and colonies were attempted in Newfoundland and Virginia. Each parish was made responsible for its own poor; and conduct and even luxury were found in the homes of the people. The Bible became the book of the nation, and Protestantism was greatly extended. This is justly considered to be one of the most glorious reigns in English history.

STUART PERIOD.

1603-1714.

James I.—Union of Mary Queen of Scots.	1603-1625.
Charles I.—First.	1625-1649.
Charles I.—Second.	1649-1650.
Charles II.—Son of Charles I.	1650-1685.
James II.—Bastard.	1685-1688.
James III.—Son of James II.	1688-1702.
James IV.—Son of James III.	1702-1714.

James I.—The struggle between King and Parliament.
Parliament victorious.

JAMES I.—1603-1625.

James I. of England was also James VI. of Scotland. He was the son of Mary Queen of Scots, and a grandson of Henry VII. He received the crown solely because of his birth. He believed firmly in the "Divine Right of Kings," as he called it, which meant that the king received his power from God and therefore should dare no limits. The Puritans were strong in the House of Commons, and they were determined that Parliament should regain the power it had before the Wars of the Roses. James was firmly determined to have absolute power, and so the two sides were bound to quarrel. The king also desired to form a union with Spain and a marriage between Prince Charles and a Spanish princess. This was bitterly opposed by Parliament because Spain was a

Roman Catholic country. In the end the match was broken off and Charles was married to Henrietta Maria of France. James, unlike Elizabeth, chose bad advisers, the chief being Carr and Villiers. The Gunpowder Plot and the Translation of the Bible were also important events of this reign.

2. The Gunpowder Plot (1605) was a plot by some Roman Catholics to blow up both King and Parliament at the opening of the session. A room under the building was stored with powder, and Guy Fawkes was to light the fuse at the proper time. The plot was discovered and many suffered death for it, and very harsh laws were passed against the Roman Catholics.

3. Translation of the Bible.—During the Tudor Period several translations of the Bible were made. James I. caused another to be made, which was finished in 1611, after several years' work. This, under the name of the Authorized Version, or King James' Version, is the one still in common use.

4. Sir Walter Raleigh was a noted courtier of Elizabeth's reign. He tried to found a colony in America, which he named Virginia, after the queen. Early in James' reign he was concerned in a plot to put Arabella Stuart, a cousin of King James, on the throne. For this he was sent to the Tower, where he remained for twelve years, filling in his time by writing a History of the World. In 1616, he was released on the promise that he would reveal a gold mine in South America; but Raleigh's object was to bring about a quarrel with Spain and thus break off the Spanish match. Reaching America he at once got into a fight with the Spaniards, and returning without gold, he was beheaded on the old charge of treason, but really to please Spain.

5. The Thirty Years' War (1618-1648) was waged between the Roman Catholics and Protestants of Germany. The leader of the Protestants was James son-in-law, the Elector of the Rhine, who had married Elizabeth Stuart. He was the father of Prince Rupert and the Princess Sophia, afterwards noted in English history. James gave little help to his son-in-law, though the English people were strongly in favor of joining the Protestant side.

6. The Pilgrim Fathers were a company of Independents, who made their famous voyage in the Mayflower in 1620, and founded the colony of Massachusetts. They had grown in Holland, but were dissatisfied with the foreign surroundings, and so came to America to secure civil and religious freedom, with English associations. They were the founders of the New England States.

7. James' Favorites — The first was Carr, Earl of Somerset, a wicked and dissolute man. He became concerned in a murder, and was obliged to retire from Court. The next favorite was Villiers, who was created Duke of Buckingham. He was an statesman, and was very unpopular with the English. He was murdered early in the reign of Charles I.

8. Sir Francis Bacon was a noted lawyer and writer in the reigns of Elizabeth and James I. He fell under the displeasure of Elizabeth for opposing a subsidy which had been asked of Parliament, and, though a nephew of Cecil, he received no preferment during the queen's life. In James' reign his ability was recognized, and he rose to the post of Lord Chancellor, but was impeached before the House of Lords for taking "bribe" (bribe). He was stripped of all his offices and condemned to pay a heavy fine, but the fine was remitted by the king.

CHARLES I.—1625-1649.

1 Charles I. was courtly and religious, but like his father, he was stubborn and wanted for absolute power. Early in his reign he was compelled to sign the famous Petition of Right, but he afterwards continued to levy taxes on his own authority, the most noted of these being Ship-Money. From 1629 to 1640 he ruled without parliaments, and his chief advisers were Strafford and Laud. An effort to force bishops on the Scots brought about the signing of the National Covenant in 1638. In 1640, Charles called the famous Long Parliament. After two years of disputing, a civil war broke out, in which the king was worsted. He was tried and beheaded in 1649.

2. The Petition of Right (1628).—Charles I. got into debt on account of a war with France, and he called a parliament. The merchants would not grant him any supplies until he signed the Petition of Right. The chief provisions were:—

(1) No taxes were to be levied without the consent of Parliament.

(2) No person was to be imprisoned unjustly.

(3) Soldiers were not to be billeted upon the people.

(4) There was not to be martial law in times of peace.

3. Sir Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, had been opposed to the king as long as Buckingham lived, but on the death of that duke he at once swung over to the king's side. From 1633 to 1640 he ruled Ireland as Lord-Lieutenant. His system, which was to rule with the assistance of a standing army, he called Thorough. He was beheaded in 1641 on the charge of treason.

4. **Archbishop Laud** had charge of Church affairs. He hated the Puritans and again introduced into the church services many of the old practices which had long been cast aside. His interference in Scottish church affairs caused the signing of the National Covenant. He was arrested in 1641, and after four years of imprisonment, was beheaded.

5. **Ship-Money (1634-1638).**—Charles took many ways of raising money, the most hated tax being Ship-Money. This had been an ancient tax laid on coast counties in time of war, to raise a fleet. Charles now levied it on every county. It was objected to because—

(1) The king had no authority to levy the tax.

(2) There was a time of peace.

(3) Ireland, as well as some counties, had to pay the tax.

(4) It was thought to be for an army, not a fleet. John Hampden refused to pay the tax, but the judges—tools of the king—decided against him.

6. **The National Covenant (1638).**—The king and Laud wanted to force bishops on the Scots, and ordered a liturgy, or regular church service, to be read in the Scottish churches. This started in Edinburgh, and the Scots rose in a body against the changes. High and low signed the National Covenant declaring their determination to resist the changes, which they called popery. The signers were called Covenanters.

7. **The Long Parliament.**—In 1640, Charles called the famous Long Parliament, so named because it was the longest in English history. It compelled the king to acknowledge that it could not be dissolved without its own consent, and it sat with occasional interruptions for thirteen years. Among its

noted members were Pym, Hampden, Vane and Cromwell. The Star Chamber, and the Court of High Commission were abolished and Ship-Money was declared illegal. In 1641, the Parliament drew up the Grand Remonstrance, a statement of all Charles' misgovernment. In 1642, those members who were favorable to Charles were excluded by Col. Pride. (This is called Pride's Purge.) The remainder, nicknamed the Rump, appointed a High Court of Justice to try the king. In 1653, the Rump was expelled by Cromwell, but in 1659 it was recalled by General Lambert. The next year the members ordered a new election and then dissolved.

8. The Civil War. — The king's party were called Cavaliers, the leaders being the king and Prince Rupert, his nephew. The Parliamentary party were called Roundheads, from the Puritan practice of clipping the hair. The leader was at first the Earl of Essex, but afterwards General Fairfax and Oliver Cromwell commanded the army. Cromwell was the leader of the famous Ironsides—a regiment of cavalry. The first events of the war were the decisive battles of Edgehill in 1642 and Newbury in 1643. In 1643, the Parliament put the Scots to aid them and promised to make Presbyterianism the established religion of England. At Marston Moor in 1644 and Naseby in 1645, the king was totally defeated. Charles then gave himself up to the Scots, but they handed him over to the Parliament.

9. John Hampden was a noted patriot of the reigns of James I. and Charles I. He refused to pay Ship Money and the case was tried, but the judges decided against him. He was a prominent member of the Long Parliament, and was so active against the king that the latter tried to arrest him along with

four others. He joined the Roundheads in the Civil War, and was killed in a skirmish at Chalgrove Field in 1645.

"THE COMMONWEALTH," 1649-1660.

1. **The Commonwealth**—Immediately after the death of Charles I. the House abolished the office of king, and also the House of Lords, as being useless and dangerous. A Council of State was appointed to govern the country. Bradshaw was made President of the Council, and Cromwell, Fairfax and Vane were among its members. In 1653, the House was expelled by Cromwell, and the same year he became Protector, and governed with success for five years. On his death in 1658, his son, Richard Cromwell, became Protector, but being unused to such a trying position he soon resigned. General Lambert was aiming at the Protectorship, but his plans were frustrated by General Monk. After the dissolution of the Long Parliament in 1660, the Convention Parliament invited Prince Charles over as king, and thus the period of English history known as the Commonwealth was ended.

2. **Prince Charles**—In 1649, the Royalists of Ireland were in favor of Prince Charles, son of Charles I. Cromwell was sent over and in the sieges of Drogheda and Wexford the Irish were put down with great cruelty. In 1650, Charles came to Scotland, and on promising to accept the National Covenant, was made king. Cromwell was sent north and defeated the Scots at Dunbar. In 1651, Charles and the Scots suddenly marched into England, and had got as far as Worcester when they were overtaken and utterly routed. Charles escaped to France after many adventures.

3. Oliver Cromwell, "The Unconquered King" of England, was a member of Parliament in 1628, when the Petition of Right was passed, and again, of the Long Parliament in 1640. When the civil war broke out he became the leader of the Ironsides, and then of the whole Parliamentary army. He took a prominent part in the trial of Charles I., and was a member of the Council of State in the Commonwealth. He put down the Royalists of Ireland and Scotland in 1649-1651. In 1653, he expelled the Rump and soon was made Protector. For five years he ruled with energy and success. He made many good laws, and there was prosperity in his time, but little freedom. His foreign policy was brilliant. The Dutch fleet was defeated in several battles by Admiral Blake; Jamaica was taken from the Spaniards in 1655; Dunkirk was taken from France; and the persecution of Protestants in France was stopped. Cromwell died in 1658.

4. The Restoration.—After the resignation of Richard Cromwell, General Lambert recalled the Rump, and in 1660, after ordering a new election, the Long Parliament dissolved. The Convention, as the new parliament was called, was composed mainly of Royalists. The House of Lords again assembled and Prince Charles was invited over from Holland to be king. This event is known as the Restoration.

CHARLES II.—1660-1685.

1. Charles II. had everything in his favor at first, but he was too fond of pleasure to make a good ruler. He never ceased to aim at absolute power, but he was too much afraid of losing his throne to

press the matter far. England soon lost the high place she had won in Cromwell's time, for the Dutch easily defeated the English fleet. Charles was secretly in the pay of Louis XIV. of France, and squandered money for his pleasures. In this reign we find the rise of the political parties, called Whigs and Tories. Charles' adviser at first was the Earl of Clarendon, but afterwards a body of men known as the Cabal directed the affairs of state. The chief law passed in this reign was the Habeas Corpus Act.

2 Disasters:—

In 1665, the Great Plague swept over Europe. In London alone it is said that over 100,000 people died of it.

In 1666, occurred the Great Fire of London. The city burned for three days and a great part of it was laid in ashes. It was a blessing in the end, for it cleared out the plague, which still lingered in dark and foul corners, and wider streets were laid out and better houses were erected.

A Dutch War went on in the early years of Charles' reign. The English ships were in bad repair, because the money voted by Parliament for the navy was spent by Charles in his pleasures, and of course, the English fleet was defeated. The Dutch then sailed up the River Thames and burned the shipping along the shore.

3 The Earl of Clarendon was the most trusted adviser of Charles II. He held office during the early part of the reign, but was compelled to resign. He afterwards wrote "The History of the Great Rebellion." His daughter married James, Duke of York, afterwards James II., and became the mother of Queen Mary and Queen Anne.

4 Secret Treaty of Dover (1670).—Parlia-

ment wished an alliance of European nations to check the power of Louis XIV. Charles, instead, sold himself to Louis by the Secret Treaty of Dover. Its terms were :

(1) Charles agreed to declare himself a Roman Catholic and aid Louis in all his schemes against the Netherlands.

(2) Louis was to pay Charles £200,000 a year and furnish an army to put down the English should they rebel.

5. The Cabal.—During the years 1667-1673 the king's advisers were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley and Lauderdale. Their initials make the word Cabal. These ministers ruled so badly that ever since, the term has been applied to any secret union of persons who further their own interests by dishonest means.

6. The Popish Plot.—In 1678, a preacher of low character, Titus Oates by name, came forward with the story of a Roman Catholic plot to murder the king and set up a Roman Catholic government. The story was not true, but at the time being believed it, and quite a number of innocent Roman Catholics suffered death. Strict laws were passed against them, all of that faith, except the Duke of York, being excluded from both Houses of Parliament. These laws were in force until 1829.

7. Whigs and Tories.—These parties arose in the latter part of the reign of Charles II. The Whigs were opposed to James, Duke of York, and wished to keep him off the throne. Most of them favored his daughter Mary, who had married the Prince of Orange, although some were in favor of the Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles. The Tories were in favor of the Duke of

York, and in after years of his son, the Pretender. The Whigs tried to pass the Exclusion Bill to prevent James from succeeding to the throne but they failed. For this the great Whig cities lost their charters.

8. **The Rye House Plot.**—The chief members of the Whig party formed a plot against the Government. A small section of these formed another plan to murder Charles II. and the Duke of York at a country spot called the Rye House. The plot was found out and Russell and Sidney were beheaded. The Whigs were completely overthrown and the Tories had things their own way for the rest of Charles' reign.

9. **The Habeas Corpus Act (1679)** provided that no person should be kept in prison longer than a certain time without being brought up for trial. (Often, in times of rebellion or great public excitement, this act is suspended for a time.) Mary Queen of Scots was imprisoned for nineteen years without a trial, Sir Walter Raleigh for twelve years, and Archbishop Laud for four years. Such a thing would be impossible in Great Britain now.

10. **Religious Laws, etc.**

1. **The Corporation Act (1661).**—All persons holding office were to be members of the Church of England.

2. **The Act of Uniformity (1662).**—All clergy were to be ordained by bishops and give full assent to all contained in the Book of Common Prayer, or give up their living. Over 2,000 ministers were thus turned out of their positions and were afterwards known as Dissenters.

3. **The Declaration of Indulgence was issued**

by Charles II. in 1672. He wished to give Catholics freedom of worship, and included Dissenters, but Parliament forced him to recall the Declaration.

4. The Test Act (1672).—All persons holding office, civil or military, were to take an oath that they did not believe the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church, and were also to take communion according to the Church of England.

JAMES II.—1685-1688.

1. James II. was a Roman Catholic, but he took an oath to respect the laws and support the Church of England. The Duke of Monmouth at once made an effort to get the throne, but he was defeated at Sedgemoor and beheaded. James was now at the height of his power, and he determined to do away with the Habeas Corpus Act, to get a large army, and to have the laws against Roman Catholics removed. He attacked the liberties of the Church of England and the Universities, and turned even the Tories against him. Although warned of his danger by the Pope and by Louis XIV., he went blindly on. His Declaration of Indulgence in 1685 brought about the Trial of the Seven Bishops, which ended in a defeat for the king. William of Orange was then invited over to drive James off the throne. He landed in England in 1688, and James, finding everyone against him, fled to France. This event is known as the Revolution.

2. Monmouth's Rebellion.—In 1685 the Duke of Monmouth landed in England to get the throne. In the battle of Sedgemoor he was defeated, and being taken prisoner, was beheaded. Judge Jeffries was then sent down to the scene of the re-

ing to try the rebels. This has been called the **Bloody Assize** from the cruel punishment that was meted out to the prisoners. Jeffries was a master and brutal man who delighted in passing heavy and cruel sentences. Hundreds of the rebels were put to death or sold into slavery for a term of years, while others were imprisoned, fined, whipped or tortured.

3 Trial of the Seven Bishops—In 1688, James issued a Declaration of Indulgence, and ordered it to be read in all the churches. The king had no authority to issue such a document, and so his order was disobeyed by few. The Archbishop of Canterbury and six bishops sent a petition to the king protesting against it. The king had been angry enough because his order was disobeyed; he was now furious. The "Seven Bishops" were ordered to be tried for "seditious, malicious, and seditious libel," but they were acquitted by the judges. The English were wild with joy over the defeat of the king.

4 The Revolution (1688).—James II. had promised to respect the laws of the land and to support the Church of England. He broke his oath to many ways, and the people of England turned thoroughly against him. Seven of the most noted bishops and nobles of England sent a secret paper to **William of Orange**, son in law of James, asking him to come over and drive James off the throne. He landed in 1688, and James fled to France. A **Convention Parliament** was called, and it met early in 1689. The **Declaration of Rights** was then drawn up, asserting the ancient rights and liberties of England. Its principal provisions were afterwards embodied in the Bill of Rights. **William and Mary** then became king and queen. Thus the **Revolution** was effected without bloodshed. The

struggle had gone on through four reigns, and ended in victory for the people.

WILLIAM III. (1689-1702)

AND

MARY II. (1689-1694).

1. William was quiet and distant in his manner, and was not liked by the English, but he ruled according to law, and that was all that was expected of him. James II. landed in Ireland and made an effort to regain the throne, but he was defeated in the "Battle of the Boyne," 1690. The Jacobites, or followers of James, were put down, but they continued to plot against William's government. William's great purpose in life was to break the power of Louis XIV., and the most of his reign was taken up with a French war. Queen Mary died of small-pox in 1694. Several important acts were passed in William's reign, the most noted being the Bill of Rights and the Act of Settlement.

2. The Jacobites in Scotland were led by Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, a cruel officer, who had become notorious in the persecution of the Covenanters. He won several battles in 1689, the last being at Killiecrankie, where he was killed. After his death, his Highland followers went home and peace was restored.

3. The Massacre of Glencoe — The Highland chiefs had been promised pardon if they took the oath of allegiance before Jan. 1st, 1692. Macdonald of Glencoe was a little late. William was informed about the circumstances, and soldiers were sent to Glencoe to punish Macdonald. For several

days the soldiers were hospitably treated by the clan ; then one night many of the people were treacherously murdered by their guests. This crime, which was caused by jealousy between the Campbells and the Macdonalds, has left a stain on William's reign.

4 James in Ireland.—In 1689, Tyrconnel, the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, invited James II. over, and a Parliament was called at Dublin. James laid siege to Londonderry and Enniskillen, but after a gallant defence of three months he gave up the siege of the former, and at the same time his troops were defeated at Newton Butler by the Enniskill forces. In 1690, William crossed over to Ireland and won the battle of the Boyne, and James fled to France. The subjection of the Irish was completed next year by William's generals, the chief events being the battle of Aughrim and the siege of Limerick. Harsh laws were passed against the Irish Roman Catholics, and great numbers of them went off to foreign countries.

5 War with France (1688-1697).—The power of Louis XIV. had become so great that a Grand Alliance of other nations was formed to humble France. England was one of these nations, and William was at the head of the allied armies. The English fleet won a great victory over the French off Cape La Hogue in 1695. On the continent the war was carried on in the Netherlands. More than once William was defeated, but he quickly and skillfully repaired his losses, and was a match for the best of his enemies. At last Louis agreed to acknowledge William as king, and this led to the Treaty of Ryswick, 1697. Its chief terms were—

(1) France gave up all her conquests of the previous twenty years.

(7) William was acknowledged King of England.

(8) Louis XIV. promised to cease giving aid to James II. in his efforts to recover the throne.

6. The Bill of Rights (1689).—Its chief provisions were :

(1) The king must not levy taxes without the consent of Parliament.

(2) The people may petition the king and elect members to Parliament freely.

(3) Parliament may debate without fear of punishment.

(4) The administration of justice—the actual trying of cases in court—must not be tampered with.

(5) Very heavy fines and cruel and unusual punishments were not to be inflicted.

(6) Anyone who is a Roman Catholic, or who is married to a Roman Catholic, can not be Sovereign of England.

7. The Act of Settlement (1701) was passed because William had no children and Anne's children were all dead. The provisions were :—

(1) After Anne's death the crown was to go to Sophia of Hanover, grand-daughter of James I., and her heirs, if Protestant.

(2) The Sovereign of England must belong to the Church of England.

(3) Judges were to hold office for life, or during good behaviour, not, as formerly, at the royal pleasure.

8. Minor Acts:

(1) The Toleration Act (1689) allowed Protestant Dissenters to worship in their own chapels, but they could hold no office in the army, the navy, or the government.

(2) The Mutiny Act (1689) provided for the pay of the army for one year, and arranged that the

officers of the army were to form courts to try offenders—quartermen, disobedient, etc. This Act must be passed every year.

(3) The Triennial Act (1694) enacted that a general election was to be held at least every three years.

ANNE—1702-1714.

1. Anne was a dull, but well-meaning woman, who was ruled by her favorites, the chief one being the overbearing Duchess of Marlborough. The War of the Spanish Succession raged throughout the greater part of this reign. The Duke of Marlborough, the English general, completely defeated the French. In the early part of the reign the Whigs were in power, but in 1710 the Tories came into office, and they brought the war to a close. An important event of this reign was the Union of the English and the Scottish Parliaments, in 1707. The Tories intended to make the Pretender king on Anne's death, but before the Queen died she put the government back into the hands of the Whigs, and so frustrated the plans of the Tories.

2. War of the Spanish Succession.—The King of Spain died childless in 1700, leaving his vast dominions to Philip of France, a grandson of Louis XIV. As France was already too powerful, an alliance of other powers was formed to deprive the French of this territory. The Duke of Marlborough was made leader of the English forces. He was an amazingly able general. Brave, gentle, free of temper, and kind to prisoners of war. Assisted by Prince Eugene, he won the battle of Blenheim in 1704. He also won victories at Ramillies in 1706, Oudenarde in 1708, and Malplaquet in

1709. The war was carried on in Spain also, the chief event being the capture of Gibraltar in 1704. The Peace of Utrecht closed the war, the chief terms being:—

(1) England received Gibraltar, Newfoundland, Acadia, and Hudson Bay Territory

(2) The Pretender was to leave France.

(3) The Sovereigns of England, as provided by law, were to be acknowledged by Louis.

(4) The crowns of France and Spain were to be forever kept separate.

→ (1) Scotland was to have 45 members in the House of Commons at London, and 16 members in the House of Lords.

(2) There was to be freedom of trade between the two countries.

(3) The Scots were to have their own form of church government (Presbyterian), and their own laws and law courts.

(4) One sovereign was to rule over the whole country, which was now called Great Britain.

Union of England and Scotland

BRUNSWICK PERIOD.

1714—to Present Times.

George I.—Grand-Grandson of James I.	1714-1727
George II.—Son	1727-1760
George III.—Grandson	1760-1820
George IV.—Son	1820-1830
William IV.—Brother	1830-1837
Victoria.—Daughter	1837-1901
Edward VII.—Son	1901-1910
George V.—Son	1910-

(Edward VII. really began a new dynasty.)

Characteristics.—Development in civil and religious liberty; in colonization and commerce; in invention and manufacturing.

GEORGE I.—1714-1727.

1. George I. was a son of Sophia of Hanover. He strongly favored the Whigs, as they had supported him, and that party remained in power during the reigns of the first two Georges. This is called the "Fifty Years of Whig Rule." In 1715, the Jacobites made an effort to put the Pretender on the throne, but they failed. A noted event of this reign was the South Sea Scheme, which was very popular; but soon the company failed, and thousands were ruined. The greatest statesman of this reign was Sir Robert Walpole, who was Prime Minister for many years. The chief laws passed were the Riot Act and the Septennial Act. George died while travelling in Hanover.

2. The Fifteen.—In 1715, risings took place in England and Scotland in favor of James Edward, the Pretender, but the battles of Preston and Sheriffmuir ended the rebellion. Several nobles

and others of lower degree were put to death for their share in these risings.

3. The Riot Act (1715) enacted that any unlawful assembly of persons that did not disperse on the command of a magistrate became guilty of felony and might be tried for it. Besides this, the crowd or mob could be dispersed by soldiers.

4. The Septennial Act (1716).—By this act a general election was to be held at least every seven years, instead of every three years, as before. This law is still in force. The ministry of that time was unwilling to face the people so soon after "The Fifteen," and so lengthened the term of Parliament.

5. The South Sea Bubble.—In 1711, the South Sea Company was formed to trade in the South Seas. In 1720, the Company entered into an agreement with the Government, by which they were to pay off the National Debt, and grant the Government a bonus of £7,500,000, in return for the monopoly of the trade in the South Seas. The Company produced enormous profits, and the "scheme" became very popular. All classes invested in stock. Shares rose from £100 to £1,000, and the people went wild with excitement. Early in 1721, the whole scheme fell to the ground and thousands were ruined by it.

6. Sir Robert Walpole had pronounced against the South Sea Scheme, and as he had great skill in money matters, he was made Prime Minister in 1721, and held the position for over twenty years. He bribed members of Parliament and others, and so kept himself in power. He was very jealous of others of ability, and contrived that no other great man should be in the Government. His policy was to keep England out of war, and the country became

very prosperous in his life. Owing to his mismanagement of the Spanish War he was compelled to resign in 1742, but he received a pension, and was excused to the postage.

GEORGE II.—1727-1760.

1. George II. was a very studious man, but he did not interfere with his ministers. He was very kind to his wife, Caroline, a very shrewd woman, and was greatly influenced by her wishes. Walpole was the chief minister in the early part of the reign, but he resigned in 1742. On account of Hanover, England was drawn into the War of the Austrian Succession. In 1746, Charles Edward, the Young Pretender, made a last push for the throne, but was defeated. The Seven Years' War took place in the latter part of this reign, and the British were successful, owing to the skilful management of the war by William Pitt, the Secretary of State.

2. War of the Austrian Succession.—In 1740, the Emperor Charles VI. died, leaving his daughter, Maria Theresa, to succeed him on the throne of Austria. Before his death, he had had the leading nations of Europe to sign the "Pragmatic Sanction," agreeing to this arrangement. Notwithstanding this, several nations tried to deprive Maria Theresa of her position, and nearly all Europe took part in the war which followed. The British aided Maria Theresa, while the French took the opposite side. The British won a victory at Dettingen in 1743, where George II. fought at the head of his army. At Fontenoy, 1745, the Duke of Cumberland, the King's son, was defeated. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748 closed the war. The chief terms

*George Washington strengthened the King's power
by power of Parliament advanced*

(1) The various nations restored their conquests with the exception of Prussia, which kept Silesia.

(2) Maria Theresa retained her throne.

3. The Forty-five.—In 1745, Charles Edward, the Young Pretender, landed in Scotland and pushed on to Edinburgh. With an army of Highlanders, he defeated the royal army at Prestonpans. After some delay he marched into England; but getting little aid from the English he retreated into the Highlands. Early in 1746 he won a slight victory at Falkirk, but later on he was utterly routed at Culloden Moor, near Inverness. The royal army, under the Duke of Cumberland, put down the rebellion with great cruelty. "Prince Charlie" was hunted from place to place for several months, when he managed to escape to France. For several years the Highlanders were forbidden to wear their Highland dress; but when Pitt became Secretary of State he raised several regiments of them to fight in the British wars, and permitted them to wear their Highland costume. Since then the Highlanders have been loyal subjects.

4. The Seven Years' War (1756-1763).—Disputes between the French and British Colonists in America and India brought on a war. It was carried on by Britain in a half-hearted way at first, and there were many misfortunes. This led to a change in the Ministry. William Pitt, "The Great Commoner," was made Secretary of State, and he set to work vigorously. Soon there were British successes in all parts. Canada was conquered in the years 1758-1760, the British being led by Generals Wolfe and Amherst. In Europe, the British won a naval victory in Quiberon Bay, and also the battle of Minden. By the great battle of Plassey, 1757,

Clive was for Britain the large and fertile province of Bengal in India. The Peace of Paris in 1763 closed the war, the chief provisions being—

(1) France gave over to Great Britain, Canada and all her other possessions west of the Mississippi, except Louisiana and the Islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon.

(2) Spain gave up Minorca and Florida to the British.

S. Clive.—Robert Clive was sent out as a clerk in the employ of the British East India Company at Madras. Dupleix, the governor of the French East India Company, wished to drive the British out of Madras, and war broke out. Clive became leader of the British troops, and Dupleix was defeated and returned to France. In 1757, Fort William was taken by Surajah Dowlah, Nizam of Bengal, and the British prisoners were shut up for the night in a windowed dungeon called the Black Hole. Out of 145, only 23 were alive the next morning. Clive set out with an army to take vengeance, and at Plassey he won a signal victory, and conquered the great Province of Bengal.

6 The Methodists.—This great religious body was in the reign of George II. The leaders were George Whitefield, and John and Charles Wesley. The cause was given them on account of their strict method of living. In the early part of the century, religion in England was cold and powerless. The Methodists occasioned a mighty revival that did much for the whole country, and its effects are still felt in all parts of the world.

GEORGE III.—1760-1820.

1. George III. was a grandson of George II. He was very popular with all classes, but he wished to

general in his own way, and this brought nothing but disaster to the early part of the reign. In 1776, the thirteen colonies in America revolted and won their independence, but the voyages of Captain Cook partly made up for the loss by adding Australia to the Empire. The latter part of the reign was occupied by a mighty struggle with France, whose Emperor, Napoleon, was utterly overthrown. From 1812 to 1815 there was a war with the United States. Under Warren Hastings and his successors the British power in India grew fast. George was insane during the last nine years of his reign and his son George, Prince of Wales, acted as Regent.

2. The American Revolution (1774-1783).—To aid in paying the cost of the Seven Years' War it was proposed to tax the thirteen British colonies south of Canada. The colonists objected, as they were not represented in the British Parliament. The Stamp Act of 1765 ordered that all legal documents in the colonies should have stamps placed on them, but strong opposition to this led to its repeal the next year. Other taxes, however, were imposed on such articles as tea, lead and glass, and at last, in 1776, the colonies rebelled. An attack was at once made upon Canada, but it failed, and the Americans were driven out the next year. On the 4th of July, 1776, the colonies declared their independence. The principal events of the war were (1) the battle of Bunker Hill, 1775, (2) the surrender of a British army under Burgoyne at Saratoga, 1777, and (3) the surrender of another British army under Cornwallis at Yorktown, 1781. The Americans, under their great leader, George Washington, were entirely successful. Towards the latter

part of the war the French aided the colonies, while other European countries were at war with Great Britain. By the Treaty of Versailles in 1763, which ended the struggle, Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States, and Spain received Florida and Minorca.

3. William Pitt, the "Great Commoner," was a noted statesman of the reigns of George II. and George III. Being made Secretary of State in 1767, he carried on the war against France with great energy and brought it to a successful close. Canada was conquered, and many brilliant victories were won over the French. Pitt resigned early in the reign of George III., and was afterwards created Earl of Chatham. Pitt was much opposed to the plan of taxing the colonies, but he was never in favor of granting them their independence. He died in 1778.

4. William Pitt, "the younger," a son of the "Great Commoner," was a statesman of ability. He became Prime Minister of Britain in 1783, when only 25 years of age, and held office during nearly the whole of the next twenty years. His chief opponent was Fox, a talented but dissolute man. Both died in 1806, Pitt being broken-hearted over the situation of the French under Napoleon.

5. Warren Hastings.—The Anglo-Indian Empire was founded by Robert Clive and grew fast during his time and that of his successors. Warren Hastings, the first Governor-General of India, ruled with good ability. Some of his acts were harsh and unjust, however, and on his return to England in 1784 he was impeached before the House of Lords. The trial lasted over seven years. He was at last acquitted, but his defense cost him a fortune. For

his great services he had expected to be raised in the peerage, but he was disappointed. During the remaining years of his life he enjoyed a yearly pension of £4,000 from the East India Company.

6. **Australia.**—While the British were losing their thirteen American colonies, they were gaining vast tracts of land in the East. Captain Cook made three voyages to the Pacific Ocean. He explored part of Australia, and discovered many islands. He also took possession of Australia and New Zealand for Great Britain. In 1779, he was murdered by some natives of the Sandwich Islands. A few years after this Australia was chosen as a penal colony. The first settlements were made at Botany Bay, near Sydney. These Australian colonies have grown fast, and are now among the most important of the British possessions.

7. **Union of the British and Irish Parliaments (1801).**—From 1782 to 1800 the Irish enjoyed Home Rule, that is, Irish affairs were under the control of the Irish Parliament. The great Irish leader was Grattan. The Irish Catholics, however, were not allowed any share in the government, and in 1795 they rebelled. They received a little help from France. At Vinegar Hill the rebels were routed, and the rising was put down with great cruelty. It was thought wise to bring about a union between the British and Irish Parliaments, and Pitt, by extensive bribery, induced the Irish Parliament to assent to the Act of Union, which came into force on Jan. 1st, 1801. The Irish were to have 100 members in the Imperial House of Commons, and four bishops and twenty-four lords in the House of Lords.

8. **The French Revolution.**—The people of

Indians had been oppressed by heavy taxation, and in 1780 they rose in arms. The King and Queen were imprisoned, and after a time were beheaded. Many nobles met the same fate, and a Republic was set up. Most of the other nations of Europe united to put down this revolution, but they failed.

9. **Naval Victories.** — In the war growing out of the French Revolution the British won many victories. At Cape St. Vincent, in 1797, the Spanish fleet was defeated, and in the same year the Dutch fleet was defeated at Camperdown. Admiral Nelson's great victories over the French in the "Battle of the Nile" in 1798, and over the Danes at Copenhagen, or the "Battle of the Baltic," in 1801, added much fame to the British. His last great victory was at Trafalgar in 1805, where Nelson was killed. Here the French and Spanish fleets were almost completely destroyed.

10. **Napoleon Buonaparte**, a native of Corsica, and the most noted Frenchman of this period, was a thorough master of the art of war. He invaded Egypt in 1798, and defeated the Mamelukes in the "Battle of the Pyramids," but his fleet was destroyed by Nelson in the "Battle of the Nile." After Napoleon's return to France, he was made Consul and then Emperor. The Peace of Amiens, in 1802, gave Europe a breathing space. Then Napoleon planned an invasion of England, but the destruction of his fleet at Trafalgar, in 1805, compelled him to give up his intention. Then, in the battles of Austerlitz in 1806, and Jena in 1806, he crushed Austria and Prussia. An attempt to place his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain brought on the Peninsular War. In 1812, Napoleon led an army of 600,000 men into Russia, but the burning

of Moscow by the Russians compelled him to retreat in mid-winter, and only a few thousand of his soldiers ever returned. In 1813, Napoleon was defeated at Leipsic, and had to resign his throne and retire to Elba. In 1815, he nobly crossed over to France and was once more proclaimed Emperor, but in the battle of Waterloo, he was utterly crushed by the British under the Duke of Wellington, aided by the Prussians. He was then banished to St. Helena, where he died in 1821.

11. The Peninsular War (1808-1814) was caused by the Emperor Napoleon attempting to place his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain. The Spaniards called on the British for aid, and in 1808, Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards the Duke of Wellington) was sent to Spain, where he won a victory at Vimiero. He was then recalled and Sir John Moore, who succeeded him, won a victory at Corunna in 1809, in which he was killed. Wellesley was again sent out and conducted the war to the end. He won battles at Oporto and Talavera in 1809, Busaco in 1810, Salamanca in 1812, and Vittoria in 1813. The French were then driven out of Spain, and were finally defeated at Toulouse in 1814.

12. The War of 1812 (1812-1814) was caused by the British trying to prevent neutral nations from trading with France and her allies, and by the "Right of Search." The Americans undertook several determined efforts to conquer Canada, but they were unsuccessful. The war was also marked on by war, each side capturing many ships. The Treaty of Ghent in 1814 closed the war without settling the matters in dispute. (See *Emerson's Canadian History Notes*.)

GEORGE IV.—1820-1830.

1. George IV. had been Regent during the last nine years of his father's reign. He was very polished in his manners, but was very unpopular, and, on account of his treatment of his wife, Caroline, he was decidedly unpopular. During his reign the Greeks were fighting for their independence, and were aided by the British and others in the naval battle of Navarino in 1827. A Burmese war in 1824-1826 ended in the conquest of some territory in Lower Burma. The chief events of this reign were the Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, and the passing of the Catholic Emancipation Act, which removed all laws against Dissenters and Roman Catholics.

2. The Holy Alliance (1816) was a union of the Emperors of Russia and Austria, and the Kings of Prussia, France, and Spain to put down all efforts of the people in favor of free government. The British did not join the Alliance, but it did not mean that the Government was in sympathy with it. After the death of Lord Castlereagh in 1822 there was a change, and at once there began a period of social reform.

3. The Catholic Emancipation Act (1829).—In 1828, the Test and Corporation Acts were repealed, thus allowing Protestant Dissenters to hold office. In 1829, this was followed by an Act repealing all laws against Roman Catholics. All offices except those of Sovereign, Regent, and a few others were thrown open to them. The leader of the Roman Catholics in their struggle for this reform was Daniel O'Connell, a lawyer of great eloquence. He had been elected to Parliament, but was unable to take his seat until the passing of this Act.

WILLIAM IV.—1830-1837.

1. William IV., a brother of George IV., was very popular on account of his simple life. The early part of his reign was marked by a struggle for Parliamentary Reform, which ended in the passing of the First Reform Bill in 1832. This was followed by a law freeing all slaves throughout the British possessions, and another reforming the municipal system. A notable event of this reign was the building of the first steam railway by George Stephenson in 1825.

2. The First Reform Bill (1832).—The House of Commons did not fairly represent the people. Many large towns and cities had no members, while other places—called rotten boroughs—with only a few voters sent one or two members to Parliament. Earl Grey succeeded in passing the First Reform Bill in 1832. Its chief provisions were:—

(1) Fifty-six boroughs lost the right to send a representative to Parliament.

(2) Thirty others were to send one instead of two as formerly.

(3) Many large towns, formerly not represented, were to have a member.

(4) Some counties had their number of representatives increased.

(5) The right to vote was given to those paying £10 in rent in the boroughs, and also to those paying a £50 rental in counties.

This benefited the middle classes, but not the labouring people.

3. Other Important Acts:—

The Act for the Abolition of Slavery (1833) provided for the emancipation of all slaves in the

British colonies, more particularly in the West Indies, where they were most numerous. Their owners received £20,000,000 as compensation. Clarkson and Wilberforce were the chief agitators for the reform.

The Poor-Law (1834) ordered the building of workhouses, and all persons unable to support themselves were to be sent to these places.

The Municipal Act (1835) provided that the mayors and aldermen of all cities and towns, except London, were to be elected by the rate-payers. Statements of the money spent were to be furnished by the councils every year.

VICTORIA.—1837-1901.

L. Victoria was the daughter of the Duke of Kent, the brother of William IV. She was only 18 years old when she came to the throne, but she made an excellent reign and was very popular throughout her long reign—the longest in British History. In 1840 she married her cousin, Prince Albert, upon whom the title "Prince Consort" was conferred. He died in 1861, and for forty years she reigned *solus*.

The Corn Laws were repealed in 1846, and soon after Great Britain became a free trade country. For several years the *Chartists* agitated for various reforms, most of which have since become law. The civil wars of the reign were the Crimean War (1854-1856) and the South African War (1899-1900). The Indian Mutiny (1857-58) led to reform in the government of India. The reign was an era of great political and social reforms, some of the most important being the Second Reform Bill (1867), the Third Reform Bill (1884), the Railways Act (1870), The Irish Land Act (1870), and the Education Act (1870).

2. The Repeal of the Corn Laws (1840).—For many years a struggle had been going on in England to bring about Free Trade, by which system commerce would not be hampered by duties. The leaders in this agitation were Richard Cobden and John Bright. The Corn Laws of 1815 imposed a sliding scale of duties on foreign grain entering England, that is, the duty was low when the price of grain was high, and high when the price was low, so as to keep the price of grain more regular. In 1846, Sir Robert Peel was able to repeal the Corn Laws, and the duties on grain were gradually abolished. Soon the duties on other articles were also removed, and now Great Britain is practically a Free Trade country.

3. The Chartists were a body of men who, in the early years of Victoria's reign, agitated for the adoption of what they called the "People's Charter." This document called for six reforms:

- (1) Vote by ballot.
- (2) That a man might be a member of Parliament without having land of his own.
- (3) That the country should be divided into equal electoral districts.
- (4) That all men should have votes.
- (5) That there should be a general election every year.

(6) That members of Parliament should be paid. Of these, the first three have since become law. In 1848, the Chartists proposed to form a monster procession to present a petition to Parliament. This was their last show of strength.

4. The Duke of Wellington was one of the most noted generals of modern times. He first won fame in India. Then he was made leader of the

British troops in the Peninsular War, and drove the French army out of Spain. In 1815, he led the British forces in the great battle of Waterloo, in which the power of Napoleon was finally crushed. From 1828 to 1859 he was Prime Minister, but was not a successful political leader. He was so much opposed to reform that he became extremely unpopular. After his resignation he again came into favour with the people, who loved to call him the "Iron Duke" and the "Hero of a Hundred Fights." He died in 1852.

5. The Crimean War (1854-1856).—The Emperor of Russia demanded that the Christians of Turkey should be placed under his protection, and on the refusal of the Sultan war was declared. The British, French and Sardinians intervened in favour of Turkey. The allied troops invaded the Crimea. The chief events of the war were the battles of Alma, Inkerman and Balaklava, and the siege of Sebastopol. This last was the greatest fortress in Southern Russia, and was taken after a siege of about a year. During the winter there was much suffering among the soldiers. Florence Nightingale and other women came to nurse, and aided much in allaying the sufferings of the wounded. The Peace of Paris closed the war. Its principal provisions were—

- (1) The dominions of the Sultan, belonging to the Greek Church, were placed under the joint protection of Great Britain, France, Russia and other countries.
- (2) The Black Sea was to be closed to the Russian fleet.

6. The Indian Mutiny (1857-1858).—The British introduced a new rifle which required the use of special cartridges, and the Sepoys or native soldiers

diars of India, thought that this was meant to interfere with their religion and customs and to lower caste. In 1857, they rebelled. Fearful cruelties were perpetrated by the rebels, and they had control of the upper part of India for several months. Their most noted leader was Nana Sahib. The chief events were the siege of Delhi, the siege of Lucknow, and the massacre at Cawnpore. British troops under General Havelock quickly marched to the assistance of the beleaguered garrisons, and Sir Colin Campbell followed with another army. In 1858, the rebels were put down, and the government of India was taken out of the hands of the East India Company, and transferred to the Crown.

7. Important Acts:—

The Second Reform Bill, (1867), was passed through Parliament by Mr. Disraeli (afterwards Lord Beaconsfield). In boroughs, those who paid £10 rent, and in counties, those who paid £12 rates, had the right to vote.

The Irish Church Disestablishment Act, (1869), was brought about by Mr. Gladstone. The Irish Church was disestablished—that is, it ceased to be a State church—and part of its revenues was applied to compensate the clergy of that church, and part to relieve the poor of Ireland.

The Irish Land Act, (1870), and similar acts since, have given the Irish tenants a more secure tenure of their land. If turned out of their holdings, they have a right to be paid for any improvements they may have made.

The Educational Act, (1870), enacted that wherever there were not enough schools to educate all the children, schools were to be built at the expense of the whole people. Since then, compulsory

education has been reformed, and many schools are free.

The Ballot Act, (1870), introduced the system of secret voting by means of a ballot on paper, instead of open voting as before.

The Third Reform Bill, (1864), was passed by the Liberals under Mr. Gladstone. This gave a vote to nearly every man, and thus added two and a half million names to the voters' list. All men who have lived in a district for a year, and paid their rates, are qualified to vote.

8. **Home Rule** is now of the most important question of to-day. The Irish demand a Parliament of their own for the management of Irish affairs. The leader of the movement for many years was Charles Stewart Parnell, who died a few years ago. In 1885, Mr. Gladstone declared in favour of Home Rule, but he was defeated, and the Conservatives came into power. Recently the Liberals returned to power again, and tried to pass a Home Rule Bill, but failed. The agitation, however, still continues.

9. **The Eastern Question**—For over half a century the power of Turkey has been declining, and Russia has coveted the Turkish provinces around the Black Sea. In 1853, Russia went to war to enforce a protectorate over the Christians of Turkey, as well as, but really to conquer that country. As this would have made Russia altogether too powerful, and endangered the British possessions in India, the Crimean War was commenced to put an end to Russia's power in the Black Sea. Again, in 1878, the British interfered in the war between Russia and Turkey and prevented the conquest of the latter country. The Treaty of Berlin the same year,

ended the disputes for a time. The Eastern Question—the divisions of the Turkish Empire—caused a great deal of jealousy among the great powers of Europe, and may yet cause a general European war.

10. Minor Wars. During the past sixty years Great Britain has waged many small wars to extend or protect her interests. The chief wars have been, —

(1) With China in 1839-1842, in 1855, and in 1859. As a result, several Chinese ports were opened to commerce.

(2) With Afghanistan, in 1839-1842, and in 1879-1880.

(3) With Burmah, in 1824, and in 1885. In the latter war the country was conquered and joined to India.

(4) With Scinde, in 1843, and the Punjaub, in 1849. Both were conquered and added to the Indian Empire.

(5) With Abyssinia, in 1867-1868.

(6) With Ashantee, in 1817, and again in 1890, when the country was conquered.

(7) With the Zulus, in 1879.

(8) With the Boers, in Transvaal, 1880-1881.

(9) In Egypt, in 1882, to put down a rebellion, the bombardment of Alexandria and the battle of Tel-el-Kheli being the chief incidents.

(10) In the Soudan, in 1898-1899, to put down the Arabs under their leader, the Mahdi. In this war General Gordon lost his life at Khartoum.

11. The Progress of Victoria's Reign.—The story of the progress of this period of English History bristles with wonders surpassing any contained in the most wonderful fairy tale.

The Locomotive Engine, with its wonderful power and speed, has joined the ends of the earth,

and the great Ocean Steamers make the most distant land our next-door neighbor. Both of them enable us to exchange our surplus products and commodities for necessities and luxuries from every clime, and have even devised means for keeping the products fresh while in transit, and so all goods are no longer wasted in the garden.

The Steam Age, so wonderful in its achievements, so much in advance of the slow and laborious Age which preceded it is now being succeeded by the Electric Age. The Telegraph and the Cable span distances by land and sea, and the Telephone enables us to converse with our distant friends. *Humanity* are by the electric force, and are driven and controlled by electricity, that wonderful power which, in former times, spoke only terror to all mankind.

A great advance has been made in the methods of agriculture and manufacturing. Instead of the slow and tedious methods of sowing, reaping, binding and threshing, the farmer has implements by the aid of which there is less labor and the products of the world are greatly increased. In the factories the skilled workman is supplanted by the running machine which have been devised to perform even the most delicate and most intricate operations. In this way amazing quantities of goods are manufactured, and it is said that the world could be supplied by working half man. Laborers and artisans are therefore agitating for shorter hours, so as to enable them to enjoy some of the pleasures and comforts of life.

Marked advancement has been made in the Education of the people. Free Schools have been established and education is compulsory. The news-

paper is a regular visitor to every home, and the printing-press supplies numberless books at reasonable prices. With all these advantages, the rising generation should be qualified to use the franchise and be worthy to have a voice in the direction of the affairs of so great a nation.

During all these years the British Empire has been growing in extent and influence, until to-day she stands without a peer—unequaled in history. Her hardy men have been exploring all parts of the world, and "Darkest Africa," as well as "the lakes of the sea," have been reached by their commercial enterprise and blessed by their missionary spirit.

Many good laws have been passed, and reforming old abuses and improving the condition of the people. Arbitration is proposed instead of war, and justice is administered in the courts. Truly we are entering upon the "Golden Age." It remains to be seen whether Britain's sons will show themselves worthy descendants of a noble race and hand down, unimpaired, their grand and glorious heritage.

The movement for the Extension of the Franchise in England has been a long, hard struggle. At first, the franchise was limited to the land-owners, then it was extended to the burgesses or citizens of certain chartered towns and cities.

In 1832, by the First Reform Bill, the privilege was extended to members of the "middle class," all in England or Wales who were not in military or naval service and who were not in receipt of a pension or annuity, while the principle of representation by population was recognized by the redistribution of the constituencies. In 1867, by

the **Second Reform Bill**, the franchise was extended and enlarged, by reducing the rental to be paid in counties.

In 1871, the **Third Reform Bill** adopted the principle of **Manhood Suffrage**, and the struggle has now been ended. For Edward George has extended the Franchise to Women, who, in the Great War, have so amply demonstrated their right to be recognised as citizens of our great Empire.

Britain in Egypt. When the Suez Canal was completed, in 1869, by Lesseps, the French engineer, it was one of the triumphs of the world, and France was justly proud. In 1875, Lord Carnarvon, the Khedive of Egypt, was about to place his shares in the Canal upon the market. By arrangement, these shares were purchased privately for the British Government, and, since that time, Britain has had a controlling interest in the Canal—"her key to India"—which she has kept open to the commerce of the world.

To protect her Egyptian share, Britain had to step in and restore order in 1882 and, since that time, she has exercised a predominance over the land of Turkish rulers, maintaining law and order to the great advantage of Egypt. At first, this was very displeasing to the French and led to the Fashoda Affair, which nearly caused war between the two countries; but they afterwards came to an understanding that developed into the friendship which has since been a blessing to the world.

The Transvaal Colony—Cape Colony—the Cape of Good Hope—was formerly a Dutch Colony which fell into the hands of the British during the Napoleonic struggle; but the Boers hated Britain and British rule and after the abolition of slavery in all British possessions, many of them trekked north, across the Orange and the Vaal rivers, drove out the natives or made slaves of them, and formed settlements. In 1852, Britain acknowledged the independence of these settlements.

In 1856, they formed the South African Republic in the hope of establishing a central government and law and order; but the task became impossible. The settlers refused to pay taxes, the public debt grew year by year; and, added to this, there was a constant struggle with the natives, who appealed to Britain for protection. Finally, in 1877, with the consent of the Boer authorities, Britain annexed the country, and assumed the public debt.

In 1879, the Boers, taking advantage of the Zulu War, rose in arms and the British forces suffered reverses at Majuba Hill and elsewhere. The Gladstone Government then came to terms and, in 1881, granted self-government to the Transvaal Republic, but under British suzerainty—it had internal self-government, but Britain retained charge of her foreign relations as a means of protecting her other interests in South Africa.

In 1883, Kruger became President. A limited franchise had been adopted requiring a

residence of two years in the colony. This was then increased to five years and afterwards to ten, although the "Outlanders" petitioned for a more liberal policy. The monopolies on all commodities were so arranged as to be a special tax on these British outlanders engaged in mining operations, although special taxation had been provided against them by the London Convention (1847). They owned the most of the land and more than three-quarters of the wealth and contributed all the taxes, yet they had no voice in the government of the country. Failing to get any redress, the unfortunate Jameson Raid took place. (1895).

At this time, the Transvaal was preparing for a struggle with Britain. Their former experience had led them to think themselves invincible and they hoped by surprise 'to drive the English into the sea' and become the masters of South Africa.

In 1899, joined by their fellow Boers in the Orange Free States, they invaded Natal, Cape Colony and the West. Being well prepared and having the advantage of surprise, they were successful for a time; but though far from her base of supplies, Britain mastered the difficulty and, under Roberts and Kitchener, they completely defeated the enemy. Then United South Africa was formed, with powers of self-government which raised many a protest, but which called forth a loyalty during the Great War which amply showed the wisdom of this policy.

EDWARD VII.—1901-1910.

When Edward VII. came to the throne, at the conclusion of the long reign of his mother, Queen Victoria, he was well advanced in years. His age and the comparatively secluded life the late Queen had lived, during her long widowhood, had taken a very prominent place in the public and social life of the Nation and was well known to all people, and very popular with all classes.

Edward has been called "the Peacemaker." Knowing the danger of war that threatened Europe—war which, in the next reign, did devastate the continent—he devoted all his energies to maintain peace—by a series of friendly alliances or understandings with France, the ancient foe of England, and Russia, the great nation on the East, trying thereby to provide a balance of power and to show the world of strength to induce the nations of the "Diplomats" to come to their usual cooperation for the coming struggle. But the huge war was and the show of strength was wasted upon a cold military machine, which dominated the German Empire and the European nations.

GEORGE V.—1910.

On the death of his older brother, Edward, Duke of Clarence, George, Duke of York, became the sole heir-apparent to the British crown, and with the title of George V., he ascended the throne at the conclusion of his father's short reign.

Intended for the army, George had received his early education from the position of military observer and he absorbed into the spirit of modern Britain, had shown himself to be a thorough Democrat. In all the important and serious

of the nation, King George, as well as Queen Mary, the Prince of Wales and the whole royal family, has shown such a deep sympathy and personal cooperation as to win the regard and affection of all his subjects.

So far, the outstanding event of this reign has been the Great War which Edward VII. had foreseen, and had labored so vainly to prevent. Breaking out in 1914, as an armed protest, it lasted for over long years, and ended in the complete defeat and collapse of the Central Powers.

The great number of nations involved, the unparalleled number of combatants engaged on both sides, the extent of the operations and the length of the battle line, the many phases of military activity that were employed on land, by sea and in the air, as well as the terrible destruction of life and property were appalling; but more, more, more significant than the wonderful demonstration of the unity of the various parts of the British Empire, which the Government of Britain had and would call like a lance of cords at the first need—a wonderful witness to the wisdom of Britain's Modern Colonial Policy.

THE GREAT WAR

The Great War which broke out in August, 1914, has been so named because it surpassed all other wars in the stupendous scale on which it was carried on :

1. In the host of persons engaged, the length of the battle-line, and the number and magnitude of the engagements fought.

2. In the terrible toll of life—combatants and non-combatants—men, women and children—on land and sea and in the air. It has been estimated that ten million lives have been lost.

3. In the amount of money spent and the great destruction that was wrought—say two hundred billions of dollars.

4. In the variety of means—invented or perfected—that were used for both destructive and defensive operations.

5. In the variety and destructive power of the engines of war.

6. In the callous barbarousness with which it was conducted by the enemy, who felt so confident of success that they thought it impossible that they should be called to account for their crimes.

7. In the terrible massacres and the outrages on the weak and helpless civilians—old men, women and children, the sick and the wounded.

8. In the wonderful crusade of the free nations of the world to meet the assault ; and

the complete defeat of the enemy as shown by the humiliating terms which it has been compelled to accept.

The Numbers Engaged in this war beggars description. Hannibal set out to accomplish his wonders with an army of 50,000 men, half of whom he lost in crossing the Alps; when Napoleon marched against Russia with an army of less than half a million men, the conquest of that country seemed assured; but in this war, between twenty and thirty million men were engaged with a loss in killed and wounded that we cannot estimate, while the expenditures of the nations for military purposes have surpassed the fabulous sum of a hundred billion dollars, and this does not take into account the awful devastation that has been wrought, some of which cannot be replaced.

The Battle Line.—When the German army advanced, in August, 1914, its battle line extended over one hundred and fifty miles; and the great encircling movement was expected to finish the French campaign and capture Paris in less than a month. This great front was afterwards extended, practically from sea to sea, on both the Eastern and the Western fronts; and in addition, the British fleet, in its blockade operations, kept guard over a line of about two thousand miles.

Along this great line, a succession of operations were carried on—now here—now there—engagements that in other wars would have been considered as operations of prime impor-

stance, but, in this war, were dismissed with a passing reference. The Western front, the Eastern front, the Italian front, the Serbian front, the Salonika front, the Egyptian front, the Mesopotamian front—each had its great army, and each carried on operations of grave importance.

The Magnitude of the Battles has been appalling. Battles such as that of the Marne and the Aisne extended over scores of miles, while some of the battles, such as the Somme and Verdun, continued for weeks and even months—a succession of military operations until one side or the other was worn out and defeated or retired. Finally, in 1918, the war on the Western front developed into one great battle, from the North Sea to Switzerland—one allied army under the supreme command of that French military genius, Marshal Foch, now striking here and now there, till the German battle-line was smashed, their forces demoralized; and, beaten to their knees, they were asking for peace on any terms.

The Cause of the War can be traced to the exalted opinion Germany had of itself, as being composed of super-men; and, tickled with this thought, all classes of that country entered into a conspiracy to secure world mastery by military force. All Germany—men and women—scientists, artisans and laborers—joined in this conspiracy to place "Deutschland über Alles"; and on every public occasion they drank to "der Tag", when their desires would be realized.

Bismarck, the Man of "blood and iron," was, perhaps, the father of this great conspiracy against the liberties of the peoples of the world; and it has been a long time in developing. Called to office at the time of the struggle for democracy in Germany, during the latter of the last century, he set to work (1) to make the King absolute in Prussia; (2) to create a united Germany, with Prussia at its head; and (3) to make Germany the dominant force in Europe. Thoroughly unscrupulous, he was not at all nice in the means he employed in accomplishing his purposes. Treachery, intrigue and the use of force aided his great ability in the accomplishment of his definite purposes. The first object he attained by enlisting the people in the second, and the war with Denmark in 1864 and with Austria in 1866 were important incidents in this step; while the war with France was a very important step towards the second and third objectives, uniting the Germans into one Empire, convincing them that they were invincible and demonstrating to the rest of Europe the military strength of united Germany.

World Power, the dream of Wilhelm II. and his people, was the next logical step, but Britain was in the way and Bismarck did not undertake it. He could be known many ways of getting into England, but not one—— way of getting out. It was, perhaps, over that very point that Wilhelm and Bismarck parted company in 1890, the nation siding with the Kaiser.

Since 1890, the work of planning for "the day" has gone definitely on—Austria, Italy, Roumania, Bulgaria, and Turkey being brought into line for the coming struggle. In 1879, the Dual Alliance was consummated; and in 1882, the Dreibund was formed. Turkey was caught in 1890, and the German rulers of Roumania and Bulgaria could, they thought, be depended upon to do their part in the work. Thus a *Mitteuropa* extending from the North Sea to the Persian Gulf would be established.

The German Preparations for the Coming War were treachery personified. (1) It mobilized its man-power into a standing army and created a navy far beyond its necessity. (2) Its scientists and artisans applied themselves to the preparation of devices for war—guns, explosives and gases. (3) Its devotion to the perfecting of the Zeppelin was that they might have a means of reaching England. (4) With military necessity as the first consideration, its means of transportation by land and sea were planned. (5) Vast supplies of stores were accumulated ready for the day when they would see fit to spring the trap. (6) A spy system was organized and maintained that supplied the fullest knowledge of what was going on; and most minute maps were prepared for the conduct of the war. Even the coming campaigns were planned to the minutest details. How could the world have been so blind to all these preparations? The conception was so horrible as to be considered unthinkable.

The Outbreak of the War.—Thinking all was ready for the struggle, Germany took advantage of the assassination of the Archduke of Austria and his wife, at Sarajevo (if it did not really cause the whole affair), and compelled Austria to issue an impossible ultimatum to Serbia and then to declare war on her. To defend Serbia from so powerful an enemy, Russia mobilized its army. Though Germany had its work of mobilization well under way, it protested against Russia's action, and declared war on Russia, and on France, Russia's ally.

Thinking Russia would be slow in getting into action, Germany planned to attack France first, expecting to crush her and capture Paris in a single month. It would then have lots of time to meet Russia on the Eastern front and hold her vast armies in check. As time was an important factor, Germany proposed to attack France, through Belgium and Luxemburg, where the French fortifications were not so strong as they were on the Franco-German frontier. Belgium resisted and called on Britain for protection; and to maintain her guarantee of many years before, Britain entered the war.

One by one, other nations entered the war—Bulgaria and Turkey on the side of the enemy, while Montenegro, Japan, Portugal, Italy, Arabia, Rumania, United States, Brazil, Cuba, Panama, Bolivia, Greece, Liberia, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Guatemala, in succession joined the Allies.

Errors in the German Calculation :

1. Britain did not hold aloof from the struggle, and the German fleet was checkmated from the beginning.

2. The Serbian resistance was not negligible, but, for a time, was more than a match for the Austrians.

3. Belgium did not submit to the violation of her neutrality.

4. The French and British had time to prepare. Paris was defended and the Germans were compelled to withdraw.

5. The Russian forces did not take so long to mobilize, but attacked the Germans at once.

6. The insurrections they expected in India and South Africa did not take place, and the Irish and labor difficulties were soon left in abeyance in Britain.

7. Canada and the other great overseas Dominions entered heartily into the struggle.

8. The "contemptible little British army" became a most formidable part of the army of the Allies.

9. The mines it scattered on the open sea and its U-boat operations were not so compelling as it thought they would be.

10. It was unable to capture the coast of Belgium and Northern France, from which to direct operations against Britain.

The German Advance.—Having advanced into Belgium, the German battle-line extended in the form of a great arm from Strasbourg to beyond Brussels, and began its extending and

enslaving forward movement, and by sheer force of numbers, compelling the Belgians, French and British to retire from the line of blood, where the British and German forces were met, and also where the last engagement of the war was fought. Day after day the resistance continued till the Marne was reached and Paris was in sight. But there the line was rolled, they thrown back and, retiring to the Aisne, the enemy resorted to trench-warfare to hold his place.

The War on the Western Front in 1914. By the force of numbers and superior equipment, the German forces were driven back and when the French forces under Joffre and the British under French joined battle with the enemy, they too had to give way to superior numbers. Day by day the Allies retired and the enemy advanced towards Paris for a week. On reaching the Marne, within sight of his goal, the enemy was flanked, checked and hung back. In their turn, the Germans had to retire before the onslaught of the victorious French until the Aisne was reached, where they dug themselves in and resorted to trench-warfare to prevent them from being compelled to move to the frontier. But Paris had been saved and the weary French forces were fed up by being there.

"The Dash for the Sea."—Later in the Fall, the enemy made a dash for their second objective—the coast of Belgium and Northern France, with the supports of Dunkirk and

Calais, from which they might carry on operations against England. Many engagements were fought, culminating in the First Battle of Ypres in which the enemy was defeated, while Antwerp fell into the hands of the Germans.

The Campaign of 1915, on the Western front, was one for position, without much results. The Allies were greatly hampered by lack of ammunition and high explosives, while the enemy was well supplied. The French carried on operations in Champagne and Lorraine, and tried to take the St. Mihiel salient without success. In April, the British began the Second Battle of Ypres and it was in one of these engagements that the enemy first used **poisonous gas**. The Canadian forces were the first to experience this terrible device, but they held the line for four days and were able to block the way to Calais for a second time. In July, the enemy had another surprise—in using liquid fire. Each of these devices enabled them to gain some temporary advantage.

In 1916, the Crown Prince made a most desperate effort to break the French line and capture Verdun, but he was unsuccessful and the loss of life on both sides was appalling. To relieve the pressure at Verdun, a counter-offensive was launched on the Somme in July. This battle lasted on into November and it was here that the British first used "tanks." The loss of men in this battle is estimated at nearly a million and a half of men. Later in the year, General Neville was made Com-

commander-in-chief of the French Army and General Joffre was honourably retired with the title of Marshal of France.

The Campaign of 1917 was a succession of terrible battles mostly won by the Allies. Early in the year the operations of the Allies were so successful that the Germans retired to the Hindenburg Line, which they thought they had made impregnable, and leaving a devastated country behind them. The very fruit trees were destroyed.

Among the important engagements might be mentioned the famous battle of Vimy Ridge, which was won by the Canadians. The French drove the enemy across the Aisne and, later in the year, captured the Chemin des Dames. In November, the Belgians, with the Canadians, won the Battle of Passchendaele.

The Campaign of 1918.—Russia had now withdrawn from the war and Germany was able to concentrate all her forces, including the German prisoners from Russia, for one supreme effort on the Western front, hoping to smash the British and French Forces before the American forces could make themselves felt.

On March 21st, the first offensive, the Second Battle of the Somme, was launched in Picardy, hoping to break the line and isolate the French and British forces; and, although the Allies were expecting the attack, it came with such force that the British were compelled to give way. The line was almost broken and the drive was not halted until the

enemy was within the walls of Amiens, on the railway line that runs directly to Paris. General Foch was then put in supreme command of the forces of the Allies.

In April, the second offensive, the **Battle of Lys**, was launched in Flanders, hoping to crush the British forces and capture Calais. The loss in life was appalling, but the prize was grimly paid and the line was held. In May, the third great offensive was launched, in Champagne, and was not halted till the enemy had again reached the Marne. But all these victories had been bought at a great cost of life.

In July, the fourth and last German offensive, the **Second Battle of the Marne** was launched. Foch was ready and the experiences of the former battle were repeated. The American forces were called into action at Chateau Thierry. The advance was held, then the enemy was compelled to retire and was driven back as far as the Aisne.

The Battle of the Last Hundred Days.—The offensive now passed into the hands of the Allies and a series of sledge-hammer blows were delivered, now here, now there, but all working under the command of Foch, much territory being gained and many prisoners and guns captured, while the loss in killed and wounded was demoralising to the foe.

In August, the first of these drives was begun, in Picardy, and was a complete success, the Canadians particularly distinguishing them-

moves. It was only by great skill that the army was able to extricate itself. Soon the British held the line they had held before the offensive began. The Americans captured the St. Mihiel sector and gradually the Hindenburg line was reached, and then smashed. The Allies were making preparation for a great forward effort, in November, when the enemy asked for an armistice, which was granted on November 11th, and the war came to a close.

The War on the Eastern Front.—On August 2nd, 1914, the Russians crossed into East Prussia, and for a time, overran the province until they were defeated at Tannenberg by Hindenburg. He then invaded Russia, but was defeated at Augustovo and had to retire into Prussia.

Another Russian army, under Brusilov and Ruzhky, invaded Galicia and captured Lemberg, while Przemyśl was besieged and Cracow threatened. A German army of a million men, under Hindenburg, then came to help the Austrians. An advance was made on Warsaw from the south-west, but it was driven back, leaving a devastated district behind. Another advance was made on Warsaw from the north-west and resulted in a second defeat and a similar devastation of the district.

In the Spring of 1915 a third unsuccessful effort was made to take Warsaw. Przemyśl was taken by the Russians, but powerful German reinforcements under Mackensen entered the struggle. Following his policy of concen-

trading special force at selected points, he pierced the Russian battle-line, now here, now there, and the Russian forces were compelled to fall back. Lemberg and Przemysl were retaken and the Russian force, short of ammunition and supplies, were driven back. Then Warsaw was taken, Poland lost and the Germans advanced far into Russia to the Dvina and Dnieper Rivers.

In 1916, the Russians remained on the defensive until June, when a mighty offensive, under Brusilov, was taken to relieve the pressure at Verdun. Lutsk was captured and Galicia and Bukovina overrun, capturing over 550,000 prisoners, while of course the Russian loss was very heavy. Lack of guns and munitions brought the offensive to a close in December.

In 1917, the mismanagement in the supplies and munitions caused discontent. In March, the revolution broke out, the Czar abdicated and the members of the royal family were imprisoned and afterwards murdered. Kerensky, for a time, rose to power and Russia was declared a republic. Finally, Lenin and Trotsky, emissaries of Germany, rose to power. The Russian army was demoralized by propaganda and lack of supplies, and finally an armistice was granted. In February, 1918, the German again invaded Russia, but there was no organized resistance. The Treaty of Brest-Litovsk was signed, by which Russia gave up Kurland, Poland and Lithuania, and

evacuated Finland and Ukraine, and the Bolshevik reign of anarchy was ushered in.

The British Navy was the backbone of the Allied defence. Britain's first act was to isolate the German navy and in two weeks German commerce was driven from the seas; but, for a time, isolated raiders did considerable damage. A German war fleet under Von Spee, escaped from Chinese waters and destroyed a much inferior British squadron at Coronel, off the coast of South America, but, in turn, it was destroyed at the Falkland Islands by a British squadron which had been quickly despatched from England.

The Battle of Jutland, 1916, was the most important naval battle of the war. Though the losses on each side were heavy, the Germans were defeated and fled from the engagement under the cover of haze and night, withdrawing to their base, where it remained till it surrendered at Scapa Flow at the end of the war.

The U-Boat was the hope of Germany. By it it expected to wear down the British fleet until it would be safe for the German fleet to try conclusions with it, but the loss of British commerce by this cause was comparatively small. The efforts of these U-boats were mostly directed against unarmed vessels. It was easier and it was hoped to bring Britain to her knees by cutting off her supplies. At first, some regard was paid to the saving of the passengers and crews of the vessels sunk, but at last they resorted upon an unrestricted U-boat

campaign, and mercantile and passenger ships were sunk without warning, the sinking of the *Lusitania* being one of the most terrible but-rages of all history, when over a thousand men, women and children were killed or drowned. By this means the enemy destroyed much shipping and supplies, but they aroused the sentiment of neutral countries against them and led both Italy and United States to enter the war.

German Atrocities included air raids, the shelling of defenceless towns, the shooting of hostages, the murder of Edith Cavell and Captain Fryatt, attacks on Red Cross attendants, the shelling of hospitals, the sinking of passenger ships, the torpedoing of hospital ships, the carrying away of civilians to forced labor, the entrapping of women and girls, the use of poisonous gas and liquid fire. The atrocities of the Germans in Belgium and France, of Austrians and Hungarians in Serbia and of the Turks in Armenia began countless and almost forbid mention.

Inspired by the success of the Russian offensive, Roumania entered the war in 1916. The King, who was considered a tool of Germany, had died very suddenly and his successor was favorable to the Allies. Instead of co-operating with the German forces to overcome Bulgaria, she invaded Transylvania. For a time she was successful, but Hindenburg and Mackensen soon defeated their army and over-ran the country. Early in 1917 Roumania was

equaled and its rich resources of oil and other supplies were at the disposal of the enemy to the end of the war.

Italy and the War.—In 1915 Italy joined the Allies, directing her forces against Austria in the Trentino to regain the *Irredenta*; and slowly she made progress through that difficult mountainous region. In 1916, the Austrians concentrated a large army on the frontier and commenced a mighty offensive, sweeping back the Italians and retaking all that had been gained and also a large tract of Italy, threatening the city of Venice. The Russian offensive just at that point compelled the Austrians to send reinforcements to the Eastern front and the Italians again began their advance.

In August, 1917, following a secret propaganda which destroyed the morale of the Italian army, Austria again made a desperate attack and the disaster of Caporetto occurred. The Italians were driven back to the Piave, and again Venice was threatened. The Allies from France came to their support and in November, when the enemy made another drive to reach Venice, the Italian line held and the Austrians suffered a terrible defeat.

In June, 1918, the Austrians began an offensive on a 100-mile front which resulted in the Austrian disaster of the Piave, and in October the Italians, supported by British, French and American troops that were with them, began a counter-offensive, which resulted in the complete defeat of the Austrian Army at Piave.

was asked for, and granted, on terms which shut Austria completely out of the war—the third of the enemy allies to give in.

Serbia and the War. At first Serbia was more than a match for Austria, induced as she was by the Russians on the Eastern front, but gradually numbers and equipment told, and the ill-equipped but heroic little Serbian army was defeated; and when Bulgaria entered the struggle in 1915 the conquest of disarmed Serbia was completed, with most appalling outrages. Her army was taken away bodily in ships and transferred to Salonika.

The Gallipoli Expedition was undertaken to force the Dardanelles, capture Constantinople and sever the enemy's communications with the East. Delay followed the decision and the enemy had time to strengthen positions already almost impenetrable. Three battleships were lost and 100,000 of our finest troops sacrificed to no effect. Then the troops were transferred to Salonika, where a French-British army was operating against Bulgaria, with the same object in view, and at the same time, to prevent Greece from joining the enemy. It was at this front that the first break was made in the enemy's ranks when Bulgaria asked for peace.

When Turkey entered the War, special was a direct menace to British interest in Egypt and India. And three expeditions were planned to meet this menace—in Egypt and the Suez Canal, to Mesopotamia, and to Gallipoli. While a Russian army, under the Grand Duke

Nicholas, was sent to the Caucasus, where the Armenian atrocities were committed by the Turks. Each of these expeditions was finally successful, and the Arabs, who had been loyal to the cause of the Allies, were recognized as belligerents and acknowledged as an independent country.

Defeated in Mesopotamia and Palestine, Turkey followed the example of Bulgaria and sent General Townsend to ask for peace terms—the sword of the enemy powers to drop out of the struggle.

The War in Egypt.—Since 1875, England has held a controlling interest in the Suez Canal, her "key to India," which had been completed by Lesseps in 1869. The disturbance of 1882 compelled her to occupy the country and maintain order, and this she has done ever since. When Turkey entered the war, British, Australian and Indian troops were sent to guard the British interests in that important region.

The Bagdad Railway, called by Germany the B.B.R., was a direct menace to British interests in India, as well as Egypt; and in 1916, Townsend, with a British and Indian force, ascended the Tigris, but was compelled to surrender at Kut-el-Amara. In 1917, Maude undertook this work. He defeated the Turks and captured Bagdad, joining forces with the victorious Russians advancing from the north.

• In February, 1913, the Turks were defeated at the Suez Canal, and in 1917 the Arabs joined the Allies and were recognized as an indepen-

dent country. Then, in 1917, the process of cleaning the Turks out of Palestine began under Allanby, capturing Beer-sheba, Gaza, Jaffa, and Jerusalem, and, in 1918, completely routing the Turkish troops at Nazareth and taking Damascus. Palestine was thus recovered from the terrible Turkish rule and steps have since been taken for the return of the Jews to their former home.

Hoping to get a good slice of Serbia and perhaps to humiliate its old rival, Bulgaria was led by Ferdinand, "the fox of the Balkans," to join the enemy, in 1915, and lend to the terrible Serbian atrocities; it was also a factor in the defeat of Roumania.

The Salonika Operations were directed against Bulgaria and Turkey to sever German communications with the East. In 1918, these operations on the Macedonian front, now under d'Esperey, became active. Progress was made all summer till, in September, the Bulgarian army was completely routed and Bulgaria asked for peace, surrendering itself unconditionally into the hands of the Allies—the first link to break in the enemy's chain.

The United States and the War.—Very early in the war friction began between the United States and Germany and continued during 1915 and 1916—the proclamation of the blockade zone around the British Isles—the loss of American lives in the sinking of vessels—the torpedoing of the *Lusitania*—the export of munitions to the Allies—the interference of

enemy aliens in American affairs—the prohibition of strikes and acts of destruction to hinder munition works in the United States—The arming of merchant vessels—unrestricted submarine operations and the Mexican intrigues.

In February, 1917, diplomatic relations were severed and in April war was declared. At first the United States applied herself to supplying munitions and loans to the Allies. A fleet was despatched to Europe and General Pershing, with 25,000 men, was sent to Europe, while the German vessels interfered in American ports were seized. An army of half a million men, raised by a selective draft, was called for, and this was afterwards increased to three millions. At first these American troops were quartered along with the forces of the other Allies to learn the methods of war, and in the summer of 1918 were ready to take their part—and take it well—in the Allies' great defensive plan concluded the war, doing particularly fine work in the taking of St. Mihiel salient.

The End of the War. "Seeing the utter defeat of his plans and the socialistic disturbances that broke out all over Germany, the Kaiser and the Crown Prince abdicated and fled to Holland, carrying the crown jewels and a large amount of money in German gold.

The armistice required the evacuation of all Allied territory and Alsace and Lorraine, the surrender of guns, aeroplanes, warships, submarines, locomotives, etc., but the Germans were glad to get peace on any terms, and their

conspiracy against civilization thus come to a most ignominious and—no simile one of all reigning houses in Germany remaining.

The final terms of peace with Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey are not yet settled (July, 1919), but the Terms of Peace with Germany include :

- (a) The return of Alsace and Lorraine.
- (b) The recognition of the independence of Finland, Poland (excluding), Bohemia, and the Russian states.
- (c) The loss of all its colonies.
- (d) The surrender of its post and commercial craft.
- (e) The restriction of certain things taken by the sea.
- (f) The abolishing of compulsory military service in Germany.
- (g) The reduction of its army and navy.
- (h) The ending of the fortification along the Rhine (east and west).
- (i) The payment of a large indemnity.
- (j) The restoring, two for ten, of the shipping destroyed.
- (k) The internationalizing of the Saar Valley—the coal mines to be given to France.
- (l) The Allies are granted certain control of Germany's finances, business, and transportation.
- (m) The institution of international labor standards.
- (n) The annulling of the Russian and Rumanian treaties.
- (o) Germany recognize the League of Nations, but is not admitted.
- (p) Germany surrenders, for trial, those responsible for the war and the outrages committed in carrying it on.

MISCELLANEOUS.

1. The British Constitution is the whole body of public law, customs, and decisions which define the powers of government. It is different from that of Canada in that it is not contained in one formal document.

2. The British Government consists of three branches :—

The Sovereign (hereditary).

The House of Lords (hereditary and appointed).

The House of Commons (elective).

3. A Representative Government is one elected by the people.

4. By Responsible Government we mean that the Ministry must have the support of a majority of the members of Parliament or resign office.

5. By Party Government we mean the practice of choosing all the members of the Cabinet from one political party. This originated in the reign of William III.

6. The Ministerial Party is the party in power.

7. The Opposition is the party in Parliament which is opposed to the Government. It watches and criticises each act, and aims to secure the reins of power.

8. The Prime Minister, Premier, or Leader of the Government is the person to whom the Sovereign has intrusted the management of the affairs of the nation.

9. The Cabinet or Ministry is the body of men who advise the Crown and otherwise carry on the government. Each Minister has charge of one branch or department of State.

10. A Coalition Ministry is one whose members are drawn from more than one of the parties in Parliament.

11. When a new Parliament is started the Sovereign issues "writs" to each constituency calling upon the electors to choose a representative at a certain date fixed for the election.

12. A Constituency or Electoral Division is a part of the country which sends one or more representatives to Parliament.

13. The Electors are those who are qualified to vote for a representative. This qualification to vote is called the Franchise. Manhood Franchise gives a vote to all men over the age of twenty-one years. The vote is now taken by Ballot. The elector is thus free to vote for whom he pleases.

14. The Candidates are those who are endeavoring to secure the position of member of Parliament; the one who receives the majority, or the highest number of votes, is declared elected. The candidate who has no one to oppose him is returned by acclamation.

15. A General Election is one in which every constituency must choose a representative.

16. A By-Election is one in which a single constituency chooses a representative. It is held between general elections, when on account of death, resignation, or unseating of a member of Parliament, the constituency is left without a representative.

17. To convene or summon Parliament is to call the members together to discuss the affairs of the nation.

18. A Session is that part of the year during which Parliament deliberates over the affairs of the nation and frames its laws.

19. The **Speaker** is the person chosen by the House of Commons to preside over its business. He must be a member of the House.

20. To **adjourn** Parliament is to dismise the members to meet again at a certain time, when they may resume any unfinished business as if there had been an adjournment.

21. To **prorogue** Parliament is to close it at the end of a session. Any unfinished business held over for another session must be taken up as if nothing had been done about it.

22. To **dissolve** Parliament is to dismiss the members and call a new or general election.

23. The Sovereign convokes, prorogues and dissolves Parliament; but Parliament adjourns at its own pleasure.

24. The **Speech from the Throne** is the address of the Sovereign at the opening of Parliament. It is prepared by the Ministry, and reviews the work of the year; speaks of the foreign relations of the nation, and mentions the important questions which are to be brought up for consideration during the Session.

25. A **Policy** is a statement by a party of its views on the questions of the day. Each point is called a **Plank**, and the whole policy is the **Platform** of the party.

26. The **Fiscal Policy** of a nation is the plan adopted by the Government for the purpose of raising a revenue.

27. The **Budget** is the financial statement made by the Chancellor of the Exchequer at each session of Parliament.

28. By the **Estimates** we mean the statement made in Parliament of the expected receipts and

expenditure of the Government for the current year.

29. Excise is a tax levied on certain articles of domestic or home manufacture, as tobacco and liquor.

30. Customs is a duty levied on goods coming into or going out of a country.

31. Free Trade is the free interchange (that is, without paying duty) of commodities between countries.

32. Protection is a system by which high duties are levied on the imports of a country for the purpose of protecting home industries by shutting out to some extent foreign goods.

33. A Tariff is a list or table of goods with a statement of the amount of customs or duties to be paid on the same when imported or exported.

34. A Revenue Tariff is one in which the customs or duties are sufficiently high to supply a revenue to pay the expenses of government.

35. A Protective Tariff is one in which the customs are placed high enough to protect home industries. Such a tariff is, of course, higher than a revenue tariff.

36. The Journals of the House (Hansard) are the books in which are kept the minutes, or records, of the work done each day by the House.

37. A Bill is a statement of a proposed law.

38. An Act of Parliament is a Bill that has passed both Houses of Parliament and has received the signature of the Sovereign (or representative). It is then a law or statute.

39. The Mover is the one who proposes or introduces a Bill in Parliament.

40. The Seconder is the one who supports the mover in his proposal.

41. The Bill must pass its First, Second and Third Reading in each House before it is presented for the signature of the Sovereign.

42. All Bills connected with the collection or expenditure of money must originate in the House of Commons. All other Bills may originate in either House.

43. An Order-in-Council is a regulation made by the Sovereign and Ministry. It has the effect of law but must be ratified by Parliament.

44. The Privy Council of Great Britain includes the members of the Cabinet, the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, and certain other ex-officio members, that is, those who are members of the Council by virtue of their holding, or having held, certain other offices. Besides these there are a large number of others who are appointed by the Sovereign at pleasure.

45. The Civil List is the money required to meet the expenses of Civil Government, in other words, to pay the salaries of Cabinet Ministers and other officials engaged in the various departments of the Government.

46. A Quorum, as applied to Parliament, means the number of members required to be present before any business can be transacted. In either House of Lords or House of Commons 40 members constitute a quorum.

47. Closure or Cloture is the practice adopted in Parliament of closing the debate on a question after it has received a reasonable amount of discussion.

48. A Bill of Attainder is a statute by which a person charged with treason is condemned to death and deprived of his property instead of being tried.

in the ordinary course of law. The Earl of Strafford and Archbishop Laud were condemned to death in this way.

49. Impeachment is the practice of trying a high public officer before the House of Lords for misgovernment. The charge is always laid by the House of Commons. The most noted impeachment in British History is that of Warren Hastings.

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